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**POWER MOTIVATION AND POWER STYLE IN HIGHER EDUCATION
ADMINISTRATION**

East Tennessee State University

Ed.D. 1984

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POWER MOTIVATION AND POWER STYLE IN
HIGHER EDUCATION ADMINISTRATION

A Dissertation
Presented to
the Faculty of the Department of Supervision and Administration
East Tennessee State University

In Partial Fulfillment
of the Requirements for the Degree
Doctor of Education

by
Nancy Lewis Garland
December, 1984

APPROVAL

This is to certify that the Advanced Graduate Committee of

NANCY LEWIS GARLAND

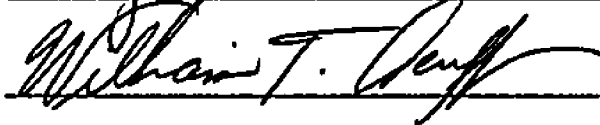
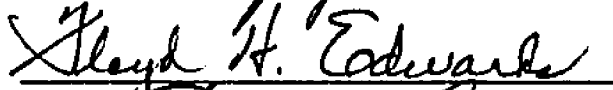
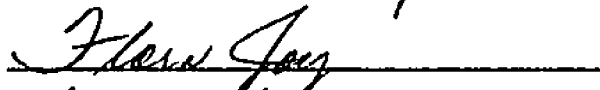
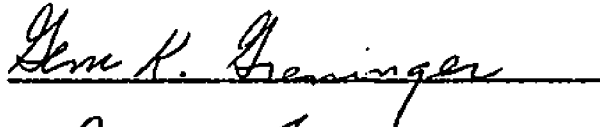
met on the

25th day of October, 1984.

The committee read and examined her dissertation, supervised her defense of it in an oral examination, and decided to recommend that her study be submitted to the Graduate Council and the Associate Vice President for Research and Graduate Studies in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree Doctor of Education in Educational Administration.



Chairman, Advanced Graduate Committee



Associate Vice President for
Research and Graduate Studies

Signed on behalf of
the Graduate Council

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ABSTRACT

POWER MOTIVATION AND POWER STYLE IN HIGHER EDUCATION ADMINISTRATION

by

Nancy Lewis Garland

The problem of this study was to determine if a relationship exists between selected personal characteristics of higher education administrators and their perceived levels of power motivation and power style.

The techniques of ex post facto research were used in this study. The Power Management Inventory developed by Jay Hall and James Hawker was selected as the appropriate instrument for use in this study. The Power Management Inventory was designed to provide a comparison between one's espoused theory (power motivation) and one's theory in action (power style). A personal data sheet was used to obtain information concerning the personal characteristics of the administrators.

The statistical analysis of the data for hypotheses 1 through 24 was intended to determine significant differences in the power motivation types and power style scores of the administrators based on a comparison with selected personal characteristics of those administrators.

The differences showing significance in the study warranted the following conclusions:

1. The power motivation of administrators can be directly related to the ages of the administrators.
2. The power style of administrators can be directly related to the ages of administrators.
3. The power motivation of administrators can be directly related to the method by which they were selected for their positions.
4. The power style of administrators can be directly related to the method by which they were selected to their positions.
5. The power style of administrators can be directly related to the number of years of service in their positions.

INSTITUTIONAL REVIEW BOARD

This is to certify that the following study has been filed and approved by the Institutional Review Board of East Tennessee State University.

Title of Grant or Project Power Motivation and Power Style in Higher Education Administration

Principal Investigator Nancy Lewis Garland

Department Supervision and Administration

Date Submitted February 20, 1984

Principal Investigator Nancy Lewis Garland

Institutional Review Board Approval, Chairman James J. [Signature]

To
My Mother
Edna Shepherd Lewis
and
In Memory of
My Father
Ralph Lewis

You instilled in me
a love of learning
and
the desire to become educated.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

The writer wishes to express sincere appreciation to Dr. Charles W. Burkett, committee chairperson, for his encouragement, guidance and scholarly expertise. It is indeed an honor to have served as his advisee.

A special word of appreciation is extended to the members of the Department of Supervision and Administration of East Tennessee State University, who were always more than willing to provide assistance and support. The writer wishes to especially thank the members of the Doctoral Committee: Dr. William T. Acuff, Dr. Floyd H. Edwards, Dr. Gem Kate Greninger and Dr. Flora C. Joy. Your time and efforts are most appreciated.

The writer wishes to acknowledge a very special friend and mentor, Dr. Elizabeth L. McMahan. Dr. McMahan exemplifies the excellence, determination and caring which are so valuable in the field of higher education administration. Her advice and assistance in this project, as well as all areas of the writer's professional development, are treasured.

The writer especially thanks a very supportive "boss" and professional mentor, Dr. Richard A. Manahan, for his tremendous dedication to the completion of this project. Dr. Manahan's scholarly guidance, constructive criticism, and more than occasional encouraging and supportive "pep talks" will always be appreciated.

Gratitude is also expressed to Dr. Ronald E. Beller, President of East Tennessee State University, for granting permission to conduct this

study. The writer wishes to acknowledge, by the selection of East Tennessee State University as the location for this study, a tremendous love, enthusiasm and dedication toward this institution.

Finally, the writer wishes to express a special thanks to her husband, Kent, and her son, Aaron Nathaniel, who endured many hardships and made supreme sacrifices: TV dinners, evenings and weekends alone, unwashed dishes, and unmade beds. Well, it was worth it. We made it!

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CHAPTER ONE

Introduction

In the entire lexicon of social concepts none is more troublesome than the concept of power. We may say about it in general only what St. Augustine said about time, that we all know perfectly well what it is--until someone asks us.¹

Perhaps no other concept in the field of human relations is as pervasive as that of "power." Power has many political and manipulative aspects. More basic to human existence, however, is the overwhelming truth that power is a fact of life.

Human beings have always been fascinated by power. They have reason to be; power has long played a prominent role in discourse concerning human behavior. Machiavelli instructed Lorenzo Di Medici in the art of seizing and securing power.² James Madison and his colleagues sought to develop a system of government that would limit and disperse power. Marx argued that political power inevitably accrues to the economically dominant class.³

The massive impact of power on human existence is apparent in the statement that power is "nothing less than an objective quality of all

¹ Jack H. Nagel, The Descriptive Analysis of Power (New Haven, Connecticut: Yale University, 1975), p. 3.

² Niccolo Machiavelli, The Prince (Oxford: Oxford University Press, 1952), cited by Nagel, p. 3.

³ Karl Marx and Frederick Engles, The Communist Manifesto (New York: Labor News, 1948), cited by Nagel, p. 3.

reality, a quality inherent in all that exists by virtue of the mere fact that it does exist. Power is an inescapable aspect of reality itself."⁴

The Problem

The Statement of the Problem

The problem of this study was to determine if a relationship exists between selected personal characteristics of higher education administrators and their perceived levels of power motivation and power style.

Significance of the Study

Contemporary philosophers, theorists and lay persons are devoting considerable writing and research effort to the study of power. The need for a thorough understanding of the dynamics and psychology of power is, perhaps, greater today than at any other period in human existence.

The more mechanical and complicated our world is, the more we need the simplicity of power to guide us and protect us. It's the one gift that allows us to remain human in an inhuman world--for "the love of power is the love of ourselves."⁵

Conventional wisdom would teach that, living in a mass society, safety should lie in following the herd. Humans are not, however, herding animals; safety lies in the ability to act and to survive alone. An understanding of the herd is a useful skill, to occasionally hide in

⁴ Kenneth B. Clark, Pathos of Power (New York: Harper and Row, 1974), p. 74.

⁵ Michael Korda, Power! How to Get It, How to Use It (New York: Ballantine Books, 1975), p. 305.

a herd is a useful deception, but "man cannot join it without sacrificing his essential nature."⁶

The process of administration is, in many respects, an exercise in the use of power. Power is fundamental to every organization. Joseph Bower commented that as organizations become more complex, managers increasingly need power to influence the people upon whom they depend.⁷ Administrative tasks such as goal setting, formulation of objectives, performance appraisal, reprimands, and evaluation all involve the exercise of power. It is also conceivable that personal characteristics of administrators substantially impact the positive and negative aspects of their power dynamics. An investigation of these factors is essential so that administrators, and those they manage, may more fully understand the interpersonal influence and dramatic role that power plays in organizational leadership.

Assumptions

The following assumptions were considered relevant to this study:

1. There are some characteristics of administrators that set them apart from other administrators on the basis of their power profiles.
2. Comparisons and contrasts can be examined between the personal characteristics and the power profiles of administrators.

⁶ Korda, p. 305.

⁷ Joseph Bower, "Effective Public Management," Harvard Business Review, 55 (April 1977), 135.

Limitations of the Study

The following limitations were relevant to this study:

1. The study was limited to an intact group of ninety-four academic administrators representing ninety-six administrative positions at East Tennessee State University.
2. The study was further limited to (a) one Vice President for Academic Affairs; (b) one Associate Vice President for Academic Affairs; (c) one Assistant to the Vice President for Academic Affairs; (d) three Coordinators; (e) twenty-one Directors; (f) nine Deans; (g) twelve Assistant and Associate Deans; and (h) forty-eight Chairpersons.
3. Responses were limited to a personal data sheet and the Power Management Inventory (see Appendices E and F).
4. A return of 50 percent of the respondents would be necessary for data analysis.

Definition of Terms

Administrator

An administrator is responsible for maintaining proper functioning of the university.

Affiliation Motive (AM)

The tendency to value being liked and warmly received by others, to nurture and give support to others and to reassure and make others comfortable, even when these are done at one's own expense or to the detriment of one's other personal aspirations.⁸

⁸ James R. Hawker and Jay Hall, "The Development and Initial Validation of a Scale for Assessing Power Motivation" (The Woodlands, Texas: Teleometrics International, 1981), p. 2.

Personalized Power Motive (PP)

The tendency to value and desire power for purposes of personal aggrandizement and control, indicating a need to be the center of attention, generally in control of interpersonal situations, and to prevail in most encounters with others.⁹

Power

The human capacity to act effectively to influence and lead other humans so as to realize a worthwhile action and its driving purpose. Power, in its purest sense, is as ethical a concept as action.¹⁰

Power Management Inventory

The Power Management Inventory is a validated instrument designed to assess a manager's characteristic management of influence dynamics, how a given manager prefers to handle situations calling for the exercise of power and authority.¹¹

Power Motivation

For the purposes of this study, power motivation involved the designation of three power orientations: (1) the tendency to value and desire power for purposes of personal aggrandizement and control;

⁹ Hawker and Hall, "The Development and Validation," p. 2.

¹⁰ James L. Fisher, Power of the Presidency (New York: MacMillan Publishing, 1984), p. 2.

¹¹ James R. Hawker and Jay Hall, The Power Management Inventory (The Woodlands, Texas: Teleometrics International, 1981).

(2) the tendency to value and desire power for purposes of serving and benefiting the common welfare; and (3) the tendency to value being liked and warmly regarded by other people.¹²

Power Style

For the purposes of this study, power style reflected a person's typical mode of responding when dealing with others in a managerial or leadership role.¹³

S/he

Denotes she and/or he.

Socialized Power Motive (SP)

The tendency to value and desire power for purposes of serving and benefiting the common welfare, indicating a personal need to have impact on cultures and systems and to be an influence for widespread enhancement.¹⁴

Hypotheses

H₁ There will be a significant difference between the power motivation types of male administrators and the power motivation types of female administrators.

¹² Hawker and Hall, The Power Management Inventory, p. 2.

¹³ Hawker and Hall, The Power Management Inventory, p. 2.

¹⁴ Hawker and Hall, "The Development and Validation," p. 2.

H₂ There will be a significant difference between the power style scores of male administrators and the power style scores of female administrators.

H₃ There will be a significant difference between the power motivation types of taller administrators and the power motivation types of shorter administrators.

H₄ There will be a significant difference between the power style scores of taller administrators and the power style scores of shorter administrators.

H₅ There will be a significant difference between the power motivation types of older administrators and the power motivation types of younger administrators.

H₆ There will be a significant difference between the power style scores of older administrators and the power style scores of younger administrators.

H₇ There will be a significant difference between the power motivation types of Vice Presidents/Associate or Assistant Vice Presidents, Deans and Departmental Chairpersons and the power motivation types of Directors, Coordinators and other administrators.

H₈ There will be a significant difference between the power style scores of Vice Presidents/Associate or Assistant Vice Presidents, Deans and Departmental Chairpersons and the power style scores of Directors, Coordinators and other administrators.

H₉ There will be a significant difference between the power motivation types of administrators selected by members of their Colleges/Schools/Departments or search committees and the power motivation types of

administrators selected by direct appointment by their superiors.

H₁₀ There will be a significant difference between the power style scores of administrators selected by members of their Colleges/Schools/Departments or search committees and the power style scores of administrators selected by direct appointment by their superiors.

H₁₁ There will be a significant difference in the power motivation types of administrators whose positions were advertised outside their Colleges/Schools/Departments and the power motivation types of administrators whose positions were not advertised outside their Colleges/Schools/Departments.

H₁₂ There will be a significant difference in the power style scores of administrators whose positions were advertised outside their Colleges/Schools/Departments and the power style scores of administrators whose positions were not advertised outside their Colleges/Schools/Departments.

H₁₃ There will be a significant difference in the power motivation types of administrators who have served in their current positions for a longer length of time and the power motivation types of administrators who have served in their current positions for a shorter length of time.

H₁₄ There will be a significant difference in the power style scores of administrators who have served in their current positions for a longer length of time and the power style scores of administrators who have served in their current positions for a shorter length of time.

H₁₅ There will be a significant difference in the power motivation types of administrators who have been employed for a longer length of time at their current institutions and the power motivation types of

administrators who have been employed at their current institutions for a shorter length of time.

H₁₆ There will be a significant difference in the power style scores of administrators who have been employed for a longer period of time at their current institutions and the power style scores of administrators who have been employed at their current institutions for a shorter length of time.

H₁₇ There will be a significant difference in the power motivation types of administrators who select one color as their favorite and the power motivation types of administrators who select other colors as their favorite.

H₁₈ There will be a significant difference in the power style scores of administrators who select one color as their favorite and the power style scores of administrators who select other colors as their favorite.

H₁₉ There will be a significant difference in the power motivation types of administrators who select one color as their least favorite and the power motivation types of administrators who select other colors as their least favorite.

H₂₀ There will be a significant difference in the power style scores of administrators who select one color as their least favorite and the power style scores of administrators who select other colors as their least favorite.

H₂₁ There will be a significant difference in the power motivation types of administrators who select one position for their office

furnishings and the power motivation types of administrators who select other positions for their office furnishings.

H₂₂ There will be a significant difference in the power style scores of administrators who select one position for their office furnishings and the power style scores of administrators who select other positions for their office furnishings.

H₂₃ There will be a significant difference in the power motivation types of administrators whose offices are located on the middle level of their buildings and the power motivation types of administrators whose offices are located on the other levels of the buildings.

H₂₄ There will be a significant difference in the power style scores of administrators whose offices are located on the middle level of their buildings and the power style scores of administrators whose offices are located on the other levels of the buildings.

Procedures

The following procedures were followed in conducting the study:

1. A review of related literature was conducted.
2. A validated instrument was selected.

3. A telephone call was made to a representative of Teleometrics International of The Woodlands, Texas, requesting permission to use the Power Management Inventory.

4. A 1983-84 listing of academic administrators was obtained from the office of the Vice President for Academic Affairs.

5. One hundred ten copies of the Power Management Inventory were purchased at fifty cents a copy.

6. A demographic data sheet was prepared and validated.
7. A letter was written and mailed along with the instrument and data sheet explaining the purpose and soliciting administrators' responses.
8. Two weeks later a follow-up letter was written to those administrators who had not responded.
9. When at least 50 percent of the responses were collected and one month had elapsed, the data were analyzed and recorded in tables.

Organization of the Study

Chapter 1 includes the introduction, the statement of the problem, significance of the study, the hypotheses, the limitations, the assumptions, the definition of terms, the procedure, and the organization of the study.

Chapter 2 contains a review of relevant literature.

Chapter 3 contains a description of the methods and procedures used in the study.

Chapter 4 contains a presentation and analysis of the data.

Chapter 5 contains a summary of the study, with conclusions and recommendations.

CHAPTER TWO

Review of Relevant Literature

Introduction

A review of the literature was conducted to identify relevant research essential to an investigation of power in higher education administration.

In the portion of the literature review dealing with the historical perspective of power, the derivation of the word "power" is discussed; the religious significance of power is examined, and the writings of historical leaders are reviewed.

Definitions and terminology of power are discussed including the views of educators, social scientists and political scientists. Distinctions are drawn between the terms power, authority, influence and persuasion.

A section of the literature review outlines the various theories, concepts and classifications of power. This is followed by a review of selected research studies on power in higher education, with an investigation of the personality and environmental characteristics most conducive to power.

In order to identify pertinent studies and information on power in higher education administration, bibliographies, periodicals and references to major works were reviewed. In addition, an Educational Resources Information Center (ERIC) search was conducted through the facilities of East Tennessee State University.

Historical Perspective of Power

The English word "power" derives from the Old Latin root "potēre" which means "to be able."¹ Power has held the fascination of human beings since their inception. It is through this concept of power that British associationist philosophers argued that we form our ideas of power from observations of our own abilities.²

Throughout history, human myth and religion have been saturated with concern for power. The Judaeo-Christian God is all powerful. "The voice of the Lord is powerful; the voice of the Lord is full of majesty."³ "And he that overcometh, and keepeth my works unto the end, to him will I give power over the nations."⁴ The term "power" is referred to 186 times throughout the King James Version of the Old and New Testaments.⁵

In the ancient Chinese Book of Changes, the I Ching, there was considerable concern about power. The book included discussions on the taming power of the small, the taming power of the great, the power of the light, and the power of the dark.⁶ In the climax of the Hindu epic, the Bhagavad Gita, the hero faced a decision between exercising and not exercising power in the war against his kindred. He was advised that he

¹ David G. Winter, The Power Motive (New York: Free Press, 1973), p. 4.

² Winter, p. 4.

³ Psalms, 29:4.

⁴ Revelations 2:26.

⁵ Orville J. Nave, Nave's Topical Bible (Nashville: Southwestern, 1962), pp. 968-69.

⁶ James Legge, trans., I Ching (New York: Causeway Books, 1973), pp. 190-97.

must exert power, but that he should "so act as not to be attached to the outcome of his actions; he must feel neither success nor failure, no joy nor sorrow, whatever the outcome of his actions."⁷

Plato argued that man's potentially unbounded lust for power is a "demonic flaw" that can corrupt and destroy him. He encouraged that power seeking be tempered, either by humility arising from classical moderation and restraint or by both avoiding the desire to rule and at the same time looking after the needs of the ruled.⁸ Plato made the following comment concerning the role of power in human affairs:

When a master passion is enthroned in absolute dominion over every part of the soul, feasting and revelling with courtesans and all such delights will become the order of the day . . . he will look out for any man of property whom he can rob by fraud or violence . . . when the numbers of such criminals and their hangers-on increase and they become aware of their strength, then it is they who, helped by the folly of the common people, create the despot out of that one among their number whose soul is itself under the most tyrannical despotism.⁹

Niccolo Machiavelli concluded, throughout his writings, that man's nature and the origins of human society can be explained by man's strivings for power. He instructed Lorenzo Di Medici that "men must either be caressed or else annihilated; they will revenge themselves for small injuries, but cannot do so for great ones; the injury therefore that we do to a man must be such that we need not fear his vengeance."¹⁰

⁷ Ernest Wood, trans., Bhagavad Gita, by Mahabharata (Los Angeles: New Century Foundation Press, 1954), pp. 153-54.

⁸ Plato, The Republic (New York: Oxford University Press, 1941), pp. 572-73.

⁹ Plato, p. 174.

¹⁰ Niccolo Machiavelli, The Prince (Oxford: Oxford University Press, 1952), p. 37.

He further instructed the Prince to follow the example of the Romans, who consider not only present but also future discords and likewise guard against them. A disease, at the beginning, may be simple to cure but difficult to recognize. In time, when left untreated, the disease becomes easy to recognize and difficult to cure.¹¹ Machiavelli further stated:

Thus it happens in matters of state; for knowing afar off (which it is only given to a prudent man to do) the evils that are brewing, they are easily cured. But when, for want of such knowledge, they are allowed to grow so that every one can recognize them, there is no longer any remedy to be found.¹²

Historically, humans have by nature belonged to a violent species. A review of the past reveals long successions of war with only brief periods of peace. Bertrand Russell wrote that some of the ablest leaders known to history arose in revolutionary situations. Cromwell, Napoleon, and Lenin each dominated their respective countries and secured the service of men who were not by nature submissive.¹³

Russell saw power as "the fundamental concept in social science, in the same sense in which Energy is a fundamental concept in physics."¹⁴ He stated that "men like power so long as they believe in their own competence to handle the business in question, but when they know themselves incompetent they prefer to follow a leader."¹⁵ He further

¹¹ Machiavelli, p. 39.

¹² Machiavelli, p. 39.

¹³ Bertrand Russell, Power, a New Social Analysis (London: George Allen and Unwin, Ltd., 1962), p. 14.

¹⁴ Russell, pp. 15-16.

¹⁵ Russell, p. 13.

stated that this "impulse of submission," which is just as real and just as common as the impulse of command, has its roots in fear.¹⁶

Definitions of Power

Robert Dahl wrote that "the first and most salient fact one needs to know about power is that neither in ordinary language nor in political science is there agreement on terms and definitions."¹⁷ David Winter commented that the word "power" has acquired many different and often conflicting definitions. Therefore, using "power" as a superficial explanation, may in the end explain nothing. Differing definitions do not, however, negate the importance of power as a concept in modern social science.¹⁸

Definitions of "power" vary widely in terms of simplicity and quality. Kenneth B. Clark defined power as "nothing less than an objective quality of all reality, a quality inherent in all that exists by virtue of the mere fact that it does exist. Power is an inescapable aspect of reality itself."¹⁹ A definition of power this all-inclusive and comprehensive is practically valueless for systematic research. On the other hand, Bertrand Russell defined power as a quantitative concept very simple in design: "given two men with similar desires, if one achieves all the desires that the other achieves, and also others, he

¹⁶ Russell, p. 14.

¹⁷ Robert A. Dahl, Modern Political Analysis (Englewood Cliffs, New Jersey: Prentice-Hall, 1970), p. 15.

¹⁸ Winter, p. 2.

¹⁹ Kenneth B. Clark, Pathos of Power (New York: Harper and Row, 1974), p. 74.

has more power (e.g. 'A' has more power than 'B', if 'A' achieves many intended effects and 'B' only a few)."²⁰

C. Wright Mills offered an inclusive yet understandable definition of power which stated, "power has to do with whatever decisions men make about the arrangements under which they live, and about the events which make up the history of their times."²¹ Mills further commented that we do not know the limits of such power. It is hoped that limits do exist. This does not remove the fact, however, that much power today is successfully employed without the sanction of reasons or the conscience of the obedient.²²

Floyd Hunter expressed very similar views to those held by Mills in this definition of power: "the ability of some men to move other men, goods, and services toward socially allowed objectives, or conversely to stop such movements when it seems undesirable at a given point or time."²³ Hunter stressed, in his writings, that few men in a given power situation see any operation as a whole, nor can an individual ever be fully aware of all other individuals and factors that may guide his own power structure.²⁴

In the study of physics, power is "any form of energy or force

²⁰ Russell, p. 17.

²¹ C. Wright Mills, Power, Politics and People (London: Oxford University Press, 1963), p. 23.

²² Mills, p. 23.

²³ Floyd Hunter, Top Leadership, U.S.A. (Chapel Hill: The University of North Carolina Press, 1959), p. 136.

²⁴ Hunter, p. 136.

available for work or applied to produce motion or pressure."²⁵ Kenneth Clark stated that the concept of power in the social sciences can be viewed as essentially the same, namely "the force or energy required to bring about, to sustain, or to prevent social, political or economic change."²⁶ In the most fundamental sense, power in the social sciences, as in physics, must be perceivable and demonstrable.²⁷

Hans Morgenthau presented a definition with reference to social power, in his writings concerning political power:

Political power is a psychological relation between those who exercise it and those over whom it is exercised. It gives the former control over certain actions of the latter through the impact which the former exerts on the latter's mind. This impact derives from one of three sources: the expectation of benefits, the fear of disadvantages, the respect or love for men or institutions. It may be exerted through orders, threats, the authority or charisma of a man or of an office, or a combination of any of these.²⁸

Kenneth Clark wrote five premises derived from the vast number of definitions of power. These premises may be used in the analysis of these definitions, and are stated as follows:

1. Power is amoral. It can be used for good or evil, but in itself cannot determine value. It may be rational, irrational, constructive, or destructive in its consequences.
2. Power may manifest itself in varying degrees of intensity on a continuum from pseudo power of mere verbalization, or claims of a power that does not in fact prevail in the face of conflict and cannot effect change in the desired direction; through latent power which demonstrates itself only when challenged and to the minimal extent required to meet or contain the challenge; through active power which is usually overt, understood, sustained and

²⁵ Clark, p. 75.

²⁶ Clark, p. 75.

²⁷ Clark, p. 75.

²⁸ Hans J. Morgenthau, Politics Among Nations, 5th ed. (New York: Alfred A. Knopf, 1973), p. 28.

institutionalized; to coercive power which involves the enforcement of the desires of the holders of power in the face of overt, persistent and intense challenges.

3. Power can be seen as operating in terms of a "law of the economy of power." The power holders do not expend any greater degree of power than that which is required to deal with the degree of challenge that confronts them.

4. The conditions of passive or active resistance determines the degree of power exerted in any given situations. Power can be expressed through: persuasion, argumentation, negotiation, bargaining, institutional controls, restraints, sanctions, or privileges.

5. The forms, the manifestation, and the intensity of the social power exerted vary according to the nature of the threat; or according to the stability, the security or the psychological health and strength of the holders of power.²⁹

Terminology of Power

Varieties of terms are often associated with, or substituted for the word "power." A distinction among these terms may be considered for research purposes and for a basic general understanding of the concept of power. Three terms are frequently used synonymously with the word "power" in formal writings and research: authority, influence and persuasion. Although other terms are often substituted for power, these three words are perhaps used with the most regularity. Therefore, these terms are defined, compared and contrasted to the term "power."

Power and Authority

Herbert Simon defined authority as "the power to make decisions which guide the actions of another."³⁰ Chester Barnard spoke of

²⁹ Clark, pp. 77-79.

³⁰ Herbert A. Simon, Administrative Behavior, 2nd ed. (New York: MacMillan, 1957), p. 125.

authority as "another name for the willingness and capacity of individuals to submit to the necessities of cooperative systems."³¹ Stephen Knezevich discussed both power and authority as means of obtaining social control. Knezevich noted subtle distinction between power and authority. He stated that power was "a form of raw energy that enabled a person to carry out his own will despite the protestations of others."³² Power, therefore, was based on involuntary compliance. Authority, on the other hand, was voluntarily obeyed.³³ Francis Griffith distinguished three types of authority. Charismatic authority is the influence exerted by an individual through his/her personality. Traditional authority is based on age and experience. Legalistic or administrative authority is based on law.³⁴

A delineation between the terms power and authority was evident from a personal discussion with Douglas Mitchell. Mitchell explained that the word authority derived from the Latin root "auctor." This Latin root refers to a creator, originator, or promoter, much like the word "author" which is derived from the same root.³⁵ The ancient Greeks

³¹ Chester I. Barnard, The Functions of the Executive (Cambridge, Massachusetts: Howard, 1938), p. 184.

³² Stephen S. Knezevich, Administration of Public Education, 3rd ed. (New York: Harper and Row, 1975), p. 45.

³³ Knezevich, p. 45.

³⁴ Francis Griffith, Administrative Theory in Education: Text and Readings (Midland, Michigan: Pendell, 1979), p. 5.

³⁵ Personal interview with Douglas E. Mitchell, 22 April 1984.

did not have a word for authority, but used a word which literally meant "out of the substance." By contrast, the Greek word for power is "dunamis" from which the English words "dynamic" and "dynamite" were derived. Mitchell, therefore, stated that "power" clearly refers to the "ability to make things happen," whereas "authority" is an expression of the "inner character" of the person, and reflects the basis of his or her actions rather than his or her force of strength.³⁶

Power and Influence

James Fisher referred to "power" and "influence" as being synonymous. Fisher stated that "influence" was simply the more socially acceptable term.³⁷ Robert Dahl stated that power is often defined as a special case of influence involving severe losses for noncompliance. Exactly what constitutes a "severe" loss or deprivation is somewhat arbitrary.³⁸ He commented, however, that "one man's influence is another man's power."³⁹

Hans Morgenthau drew a distinction between influence and power with the following example. The Secretary of State has influence over the President, but no power. He cannot impose his will. He can persuade, but not compel, the President to act in a given manner. The President, in contrast, has power. He can impose his will by virtue of the authority of his office, the promise of benefits and the threat of disadvantage.⁴⁰

³⁶ Mitchell, personal interview, April 22, 1984.

³⁷ James L. Fisher, Power of the Presidency (New York: MacMillan, 1984), p. 8.

³⁸ Dahl, p. 32.

³⁹ Dahl, p. 15.

⁴⁰ Morgenthau, p. 29.

Power and Persuasion

Persuasion, like authority, is a form of voluntary compliance. The persuasive person has no formal or legitimate position in the hierarchy.⁴¹ Persuasion can be utilized when subordinates accept the legitimacy of a superordinate's authority.⁴² "It is compliance without consideration of personal wants (power) or the position of the other person (authority)."⁴³

Theories, Concepts and Classifications of Power

Robert Dahl stated that "the concept of power is as ancient and ubiquitous as any that social science can boast."⁴⁴ Despite the current level of interest in the topic of power, it is yet to occupy a central theme in the social sciences as envisioned by Dahl and other scientists and philosophers. Perhaps one reason for this phenomenon is the number of varied theories, conceptualizations and classifications of power, each of which differs in emphasis and scope. The relationship of these differing views to each other is also often unclear.

One example of the resulting confusion was found in various discussions of the works of John French and Bertram Raven. Throughout the literature their delineation of five types of power is referred to

⁴¹ Knezevich, p. 45.

⁴² Douglas E. Mitchell and William G. Spady, "Authority, Power, and the Legitimation of Social Control," Educational Administration Quarterly, 19 (Winter 1983), 22.

⁴³ Knezevich, p. 45.

⁴⁴ Robert A. Dahl, "The Concept of Power," Behavioral Science, 2 (1957), 201.

as: a theory of power, a taxonomy of power, bases of power, types of power, classifications of power and concepts of power. Although these discrepancies do not reduce the importance of their work, they serve as a reminder of the differing views of power throughout the social sciences. Key theories, concepts and classifications of power will be discussed in this section.

French and Raven defined five bases for social power: reward power, based on the perception of a wielder of power as having control over rewards; coercive power, based on expectations of punishment for failure to conform to stated expectations; expert power, based on the extent of knowledge or perceived knowledge possessed by a group or individual; legitimate power, based on an accepted principle that an individual has a legitimate right to prescribe certain behaviors for another individual; and referent power based on an identification with a wielder of power, expressed by the linkage of behavior, beliefs, perceptions and/or values with those subject to the power.⁴⁵

In a discussion of these bases of power, Roy Martin commented on French and Raven's belief that all social change resulting from human intervention could be attributed to the operation of one or more of these forms of power. Martin concluded that "the most influential persons are those who have more than one source of power at their disposal."⁴⁶

⁴⁵ Bertram H. Raven and John R. P. French, Jr., "Legitimate Power, Coercive Power, and Observability in Social Influence," Sociometry, 21 (June 1958), 83.

⁴⁶ Roy Martin, "Expert and Referent Power: A Framework for Understanding and Maximizing Consultative Effectiveness," Journal of School Psychology, 16 (1978), 50-52.

Amitai Etzioni introduced the concept of the effects of the exercise of power as one way of classifying types of authority. He classified types of power in his trichotomy of power, which included coercive, utilitarian and normative power.⁴⁷

William Pollard and Terence Mitchell outlined four key theories of social power. Of the theories discussed by Pollard and Mitchell, field theory and exchange theory are considered process theories, and the political science theory and decision theory are considered outcome theories.⁴⁸

The field theory is based on the premise that behavior is seen as a function of needs or tensions, conceptualized as force vectors. 'A' can have power over 'B' without bringing about a behavioral change since 'B's' actual behavior is a function of forces induced by other actors and the impersonal environment, in addition to forces created by 'A'. Thus 'A' can have power by overcoming the resistance to him/her. To have control, however, s/he must overcome not only resistance forces but all the opposition forces as well.⁴⁹

The exchange theory is based on an economic-like analysis of the interaction between actors. The exchange theorists view this interaction in terms of the rewards and costs the actors mediate for each other, and

⁴⁷ Amitai Etzioni, Modern Organizations (Englewood Cliffs, New Jersey: Prentice-Hall, 1964), p. 3.

⁴⁸ William E. Pollard and Terence R. Mitchell, "Decision Theory Analysis of Social Power," Psychological Bulletin, 78 (December 1972), 434.

⁴⁹ Pollard and Mitchell, p. 434.

on the exchange aspect of the mutual dispensation of rewards and punishments or costs. The general assumption is that individuals behave so as to maximize the difference between the rewards and costs they experience.⁵⁰

The political science theory is based on the premise that the power of an actor can be examined in terms of the effects s/he has on the decisions or choices of other actors. The power of 'A' can be determined by the extent to which 'A' can get 'B' to do something 'B' would not otherwise do. The power of 'A' over 'B' is a function of the difference between the probability of 'B' performing a given behavior after 'A' has made some intervention and the probability of 'B' performing this behavior without 'A's' intervention.⁵¹

The decision theory is based on the idea that the behavior of men is guided by the desire to obtain pleasure and avoid pain. This theory is based on the outcomes of two specific types of decisions: riskless and risky. A riskless decision occurs when an actor knows exactly what the outcomes of the various courses of action will be. The actor must then select the course of action with the largest overall utility. In contrast, a risky decision occurs when the actor must make a decision where the occurrence of certain outcomes as a consequence of the courses of action is a matter of probability.⁵²

Herbert Goldhamer and Edward A. Shils distinguished three major forms of power in terms of the type of influence brought to bear upon

⁵⁰ Pollard and Mitchell, p. 434.

⁵¹ Pollard and Mitchell, p. 436.

⁵² Pollard and Mitchell, p. 437.

the subordinate individual. Force is exercised when the power-holder influences behavior by a physical manipulation of the subordinated individual through methods such as assault or confinement. Domination occurs when the power-holder influences behavior by making explicit to others what he wants them to do, through such methods as command or request. Manipulation is exercised where the power-holder influences the behavior of others without making explicit the behavior which he thereby wants them to perform. Manipulation may occur by utilization of symbols or performing acts. Propaganda is a major form of manipulation.⁵³

Paul Secord and Carl W. Backman stated that the amount of power that an individual may exert in a given situation is directly related to three interdependent properties: resources, dependencies and alternatives.⁵⁴ A resource is a property or conditional state of an individual which enables him to modify the rewards and costs experienced by another person. These properties or conditional states may include a possession, an attribute of appearance or personality, a job position or a certain way of behaving. The value of such a resource is primarily determined by the dependency of the other person on him/her. The value of a resource also varies situationally, with some situations creating temporary dependencies. The potentialities for influence in a relationship between two persons are dependent on more than just the characteristics of each person and the

⁵³ Herbert Goldhamer and Edward A. Shils, "Type of Power and Status," The American Journal of Sociology, 45 (September 1939), 171-72.

⁵⁴ Paul F. Secord and Carl W. Backman, Social Psychology, 2nd ed. (New York: McGraw-Hill, 1974), p. 247.

situation. Power is a function of the availability of alternative sources of reward and alternative means of reducing costs.⁵⁵

David McClelland classified power into two dimensions: (1) whether the source of power is outside or inside the self; and (2) whether the object of power is the self or someone or something outside the self. McClelland felt these dimensions could be divided into four modalities and stressed the fact that an individual could stay in any one stage for a lifetime or progress/regress through the stages.⁵⁶

Stage I is referred to as "it strengthens me." The first way an infant has to feel strong is to incorporate strength from another. Later in life the "Stage I" person continues to draw strength from others such as friends, family or an admired leader.⁵⁷

Stage II is referred to as "I strengthen myself." A child learns that he can be powerful simply by saying "No." The mother urges the child to defecate at a particular time. By learning to control defecation, the child has a major opportunity to learn self-assertiveness and self-control. The child learns that the mother cannot control his/her thoughts. Eventually, by extension, the adult who employs this modality of feeling powerful may accumulate possessions envisioned as part of self, such as sports cars, rifles, or credit cards.⁵⁸

Stage III is referred to as "I have impact on others." If

⁵⁵ Secord and Backman, pp. 247-48.

⁵⁶ David C. McClelland, Power the Inner Experience (New York: Irvington Publishers, 1975), p. 13.

⁵⁷ McClelland, p. 13.

⁵⁸ McClelland, p. 15.

consideration is returned to the growing child, soon after s/he learns s/he can feel powerful by controlling or building up himself/herself, s/he also learns to feel power by controlling others. As the child grows older, simple methods of environmental control give way to more subtle techniques such as persuasion, bargaining and maneuvering, in order to control the behavior of others.⁵⁹

Helping behavior also belongs in Stage III. One way of looking at giving is to perceive that for help to be given, help must be received. In accepting a gift, or help, the receiver can be perceived as acknowledging that s/he is weaker. From this viewpoint the receiver acknowledges that s/he is weaker to the extent that s/he accepts help from the giver.⁶⁰

McClelland commented that persons who either are or want to be educators regularly feel a stronger need to have power. The field of education is regarded as a "help giving" profession. This finding, therefore, suggests that persons with high power motivation are attracted to the teaching profession because it gives them the opportunity to feel strong by helping others.⁶¹

Stage IV is referred to as "it moves me to do my duty." When the little boy recognizes that he cannot defeat his father, he incorporates the father's image and tries to be like him. Power based on this type of collective authority carries far more dangerous potential than power based on the authority of one individual. McClelland felt that what a person would not do on his own behalf, he will do if he perceives it as his duty to the higher authority.⁶²

⁵⁹ McClelland, p. 18.

⁶¹ McClelland, p. 19.

⁶⁰ McClelland, p. 18.

⁶² McClelland, p. 21.

Power, Personality and Environmental Characteristics

David C. McClelland and David H. Burnham studied five hundred successful managers and their less successful colleagues in sales, research, product development and operations divisions of twenty-five major organizations. Their major conclusion was that "a good manager is not one who needs personal success or who is people-oriented, but one who likes power."⁶³ McClelland and Burnham found that the desire to have impact, to be strong and influential, was essential to good management. They termed this concept "power motivation" and concluded from their research that 70 percent of the managers tested were higher in power motivation than non-management personnel.⁶⁴

The better managers, as judged by the morale of those working for them, tended to be even higher in power motivation. The single most important determining factor of high morale was whether the manager's power motivation was higher than his/her need to be liked.⁶⁵ Seventy-three percent of those perceived as being the better managers had a stronger need for power than a need to be liked. The need to be liked was termed the "affiliation motive."⁶⁶

McClelland and Burnham stated from their study that, above all:

⁶³ David C. McClelland and David H. Burnham, "Power Is the Great Motivator," The Harvard Business Review, 54 (March-April 1976), 100.

⁶⁴ McClelland and Burnham, p. 102.

⁶⁵ McClelland and Burnham, p. 103.

⁶⁶ McClelland and Burnham, p. 103.

The good manager's power motivation is not oriented toward personal aggrandizement but toward the institution which he or she serves. The better managers are high in power motivation and low in affiliation motivation. They care about institutional power and use it to stimulate their employees to be more productive.⁶⁷

Jay Hall and James Hawker summarized the findings of McClelland and Burnham by stating that good management may be said to require an appreciation of and desire for having impact, being strong and influential. Moreover, this need must be greater than either the need for personal achievement or the need to be liked by others.⁶⁸ McClelland stated that one's desire for impact, strength or influence may take a form oriented primarily toward the achievement of personal gain and aggrandizement or by the need to influence others' behavior for the common good.⁶⁹ In the first instance, the need for power is essentially self-serving, colored by unresolved achievement needs. In the second example, the person's power motivation is labeled "socialized," with power as an instrument to be used for the common good on behalf of the whole organization.⁷⁰

Many other factors have been examined in current literature as having an impact on personal power. Michael Korda commented that it is probably easier for males to achieve power.⁷¹ Korda stated that the main

⁶⁷ McClelland and Burnham, p. 103.

⁶⁸ James A. Hawker and Jay Hall, "Interpreting Your Scores from the Power Management Inventory" (The Woodlands, Texas: Teleometrics International, 1981), p. 1.

⁶⁹ David C. McClelland, "The Two Faces of Power," Journal of International Affairs, 24 (1970), 30.

⁷⁰ McClelland, "The Two Faces of Power," p. 30.

⁷¹ Michael Korda, Power! How to Get It, How to Use It (New York: Ballantine Books, 1975), p. 252.

reason women find it difficult to achieve power is not so much that males put obstacles in their way, but rather that power is thought of as essentially male.⁷² This distinction may originate from the fact that "the authentic voice of power" is thought of as that of a man. The President of the United States has always been a man; most judges are men, and even in schools where teachers are women, the majority of principals are men.⁷³ Korda further commented that women may have a distinct advantage over men; men are seldom inclined to see women as rivals.⁷⁴

Jane Mayo-Chamberlain conducted dissertation research on women's experience with power. Her theoretical paper concluded that human beings experience three kinds of power: transformation, communication and instrumental. These kinds of power involve an interrelationship between feminine and masculine principles:

1. Transformation--the capacity to move forward full potential through the nurturing and imaginative action of the feminine principle, and the clarifying effect of the masculine principle;
2. Communication--the capacity to achieve consensus through the relating and receptive action of the feminine principle, and the discriminating action of the masculine principle; and
3. Instrumental--capacity to gain prespecified goals through the adaptive and persistent action of the feminine principle and the insightful action of the masculine principle.⁷⁵

⁷² Korda, p. 252.

⁷³ Korda, p. 253.

⁷⁴ Korda, p. 281.

⁷⁵ Jane Mayo-Chamberlain, "Women's Experience of Power: A Theory for Educational Development," Dissertation Abstracts International, 41 (October 1980), 4324A.

Another characteristic associated with personal power is height. Julius Fast spoke of "dominance through height" as a truism which works from animal kingdom to man. Among wolves, studies indicate that the pack leader asserts his dominance by wrestling a yearling or subordinate wolf to the ground and standing over him.⁷⁶

Humans have a tradition of abasement before a king, idols or altars. Bowing, in general, is a statement of inferiority by height. The body language message is "You are higher than I am, therefore, you are dominant."⁷⁷

History supports the concept that powerful individuals were often above average in height. Of the forty presidents of the United States of America, only two were below average height. James Madison was five feet and four inches tall, and Martin Van Buren was five feet and six inches in height.⁷⁸

The age of an individual may influence his/her personal power in a given situation. David Brown interviewed fifty-two chief executive officers from universities across the United States. He posed a question concerning the length of time that an executive officer could remain effective in a university position. Of those responding in numbers, the average length of time was four to ten years.⁷⁹ The following comments

⁷⁶ Julius Fast, Body Language (New York: Pocket Books, 1970), p. 40.

⁷⁷ Fast, p. 40.

⁷⁸ Joseph Nathan Kane, Facts About the Presidents, 4th ed. (New York: H. W. Wilson, 1981), pp. 366-68.

⁷⁹ David G. Brown, Leadership Vitality (Washington, D.C.: American Council on Education, 1979), p. 48.

were made by the executive officers:

1. The implication here is that the more change a person is responsible for, the shorter his term may be, unless he is able to be a very astute politician, and even then his days are numbered;
2. As long as they feel there is a challenge to be met, they can be effective; and
3. Effective leadership requires a long-term commitment to an institution . . . a truly effective administrator establishes himself over a long period of time. Furthermore, he really is not fully accepted until the institution has weathered some bad times under his leadership.⁸⁰

James S. Larson conducted dissertation research on the effects of temperament, age and administrative setting on leadership style. Larson identified two types of leadership style:

1. Discipline--the use of punishment rather than tact in response to errors; and
2. Decision centralization--to centralize without employee input or advice in decision making.⁸¹

The findings of the study suggested that among non-college administrators discipline was used more often, while college administrators tended to use decision centralization. It was reasoned that college administrators use less discipline because authority and accountability in college administration are less clearly defined than in non-college settings.⁸²

The results of this study further suggested that decision centralization and discipline are negatively related. When one style is used, there is a tendency not to use the other as a leadership style.⁸³

⁸⁰ Brown, pp. 48-49.

⁸¹ James S. Larson, "Leadership Style and Temperament," Dissertation Abstracts International, 39 (August 1978), 1098A.

⁸² Larson, p. 1098A.

⁸³ Larson, p. 1098A.

Bertrand Russell stated that power is mainly dependent on organizations. Purely psychological power, such as that of Plato or Galileo, may exist without any corresponding social institution. Most power, however, is not important unless it is propagated by a church, a political party, or some analogous social organism.⁸⁴

James A. Burkhardt, Samuel Krislov and Raymond L. Lee wrote of the philosophies of Martin Luther King, Jr. King was an example of a charismatic leader, emerging as the spokesman of the Southern Christian Leadership Conference and the civil rights movement.⁸⁵ His sanction for leadership among the black population and his dedication to their cause were expressed in his letter from the Birmingham City Jail. Burkhardt, Krislov and Lee referred to this letter as "an eloquent demonstration of why he emerged as the spokesman of the civil rights movement."⁸⁶ The charismatic leadership style and power of King were expressed in the following comment from that letter:

I would not hesitate to say that it is unfortunate that so-called demonstrations are taking place in Birmingham at this time, but I would say in more emphatic terms that it is even more unfortunate that the white power structure of this city left the Negro community with no other alternative.⁸⁷

Russell defined an organization as "a set of people who are combined

⁸⁴ Russell, Power, a New Social Analysis, p. 107.

⁸⁵ James A. Burkhardt, Samuel Krislov, and Raymond L. Lee, American Government: The Clash of Issues (Englewood Cliffs, New Jersey: Prentice-Hall, 1972), p. 116.

⁸⁶ Burkhardt, Krislov, and Lee, p. 116.

⁸⁷ Martin Luther King, Jr., "Letter from Birmingham City Jail," The New Leader, 24 June 1963, p. 3.

in virtue of activities directed to common ends."⁸⁸ He further stated that every organization, whatever its character or purpose, involves some redistribution of power. Competition for power may be viewed either between organizations or between individuals for leadership within an organization.⁸⁹

In a study concerning sources of power in complex organizations, David Mechanic concluded that within organizations, the distribution of power is closely if not perfectly correlated with the prestige of position. Mechanic stated that, generally, persons occupying high-ranking positions within organizations have more power than those holding low-ranking positions.⁹⁰

The study further indicated that lower participants recognized the right of higher-ranking participants to exercise power and yielded without difficulty to demands they regarded as legitimate.⁹¹ Moreover, a clear correlation was noted between the prestige of positions and the extent to which the position offered access to information, persons and instrumentalities. Mechanic, therefore, stated that "power is closely related to dependence."⁹² He concluded that within organizations one makes others dependent on himself/herself by controlling:

1. Information--knowledge of the organization, persons, norms, procedures and techniques;
2. Persons--anyone within or outside the organization

⁸⁸ Russell, p. 108.

⁸⁹ Russell, p. 108.

⁹⁰ David Mechanic, "Sources of Power of Lower Participants in Complex Organizations," Administrative Science Quarterly, 24 (June 1960), 350.

⁹¹ Mechanic, p. 350.

⁹² Mechanic, p. 351.

upon whom the organization is in some way dependent; and

3. Instrumentalities--any aspect of the physical plant of the organization or its resources; such as equipment, machines or money.⁹³

In dissertation research conducted by Margaret Sughrue Carlson, female administrators were examined to determine the relationship between organizational factors and perceived power. Using an interview technique, Carlson reached the following conclusions:

1. Systemic factors (role expectations, and organizational structure and process) were more fundamental than positional variables (professional responsibility) in accounting for power in an academic setting;

2. Empowerment of female administrators was linked to the historical and contextual equity patterns of the educational institution;

3. Leadership roles are rooted in academic preparation and expertise rather than administrative skills and competencies; and

4. Perceived power increased with formal authority.⁹⁴

Charles Clevenger studied the patterned distribution of power in colleges and universities. By specifying a college's social structure, Clevenger hypothesized that the characteristics of an institution's more elusive power distribution pattern could be determined. The findings of his research indicated that power in colleges and universities tends to be system-relevant rather than related to the property or personal attribute of an individual actor. He concluded that power, as a phenomenon distinct from authority, control or influence is much

⁹³ Mechanic, p. 352.

⁹⁴ Margaret Sughrue Carlson, "The Relationship Between Organizational Factors and Perceived Power: A Study of Female Administrators in Minnesota Institutions of Higher Education," Dissertation Abstracts International, 44 (August 1983), 432A.

discussed but infrequently exercised in colleges and universities.⁹⁵

The research of Edward Gross and Paul Grambsch closely paralleled the findings of Clevenger. Gross and Grambsch stated, in a study for the Carnegie Commission on Higher Education, that it is widely assumed that power holders have a causal impact on their environments, in the sense that they affect or even determine goals and the manner of their attainment. They concluded, however, that the causal direction may be the reverse. It is more likely that universities with certain types of goal structures attract certain kinds of persons into positions of high influence. Instead of assuming that power holders cause goals, it is more likely that goals "cause" certain kinds of power structures to emerge.⁹⁶

In contrast to these findings, the results of dissertation research conducted by John Thomas Polito indicated that greed is the dominant motive for powerful individuals. Individuals are equally likely to make decisions which benefit themselves and impose costs on others, whether they act jointly or singly.⁹⁷

In selecting individuals to serve in given positions, research by French and Raven explored the hypothesis that in an interdependent situation, an election process would serve to grant an individual a legitimate right to a position. Two work situations were created, both

⁹⁵ Charles Clevenger, "A Middle Range Theory of Power in Universities," Dissertation Abstracts International, 43 (December 1982), 1846A.

⁹⁶ Edward Gross and Paul V. Grambsch, Changes in University Organization 1964-1971 (New York: McGraw-Hill, 1974), p. 120.

⁹⁷ John Thomas Polito, "Motives of the Powerful and the Powerless," Dissertation Abstracts International, 43 (December 1982), 2083A.

interdependent and identical with the exception that in one case the individual was elected and in the other the individual assumed the position by appointment. The hypothesis as stated above was substantially supported.⁹⁸

Barry Richman and Richard Farmer enumerated sources of organizational power. Some of these sources relate to group characteristics, while some are individualistic. These sources of power include

1. Formal authority to decide and act;
2. Authority to enforce various policies, procedures, rules and methods;
3. Expertise, skill and knowledge relating to specific kinds of decisions;
4. Perceived as a significant information source;
5. Manipulative ability and political power source;
6. Referent power or influence by association;
7. Fair, open-minded and trustworthy;
8. Willingness to spend time; and
9. Persistence.⁹⁹

Personal space and the arrangement of office furnishings hold an interest in the study of power in organizations. Robert Sommer reported research which indicated that spatial arrangement is a function of group task, the degree of relationship of individuals, personalities of the individuals, and the amount and kind of available space. This resulting arrangement, in turn, affects communication, friendship, and status differentiation between individuals.¹⁰⁰

⁹⁸ Bertram H. Raven and John R. P. French, Jr., "Group Support, Legitimate Power, and Social Influence," Journal of Personality, 26 (September 1958), 409.

⁹⁹ Barry M. Richman and Richard N. Farmer, Leadership, Goals and Power in Higher Education (San Francisco: Jossey Bass, 1974), pp. 174-76.

¹⁰⁰ Robert Sommer, "Small Group Ecology," Psychological Bulletin, 67 (1967), 145.

Michael Korda began his discussion of spatial arrangement with a discussion of power circles. In a power circle, as in any office arrangement, a desk is the position of control.¹⁰¹ In a circular arrangement, the order of power will follow in a clockwise fashion from the position of control. The person to the left of the position of control will be the second most powerful, with the person to the right being the least powerful.¹⁰²

Julius Fast discussed a manager's manipulation of the spatial arrangement of office furnishings. Fast stated that a desk can act as a barrier. By arranging the office so that the visiting worker sits on one side of the desk with the manager sitting on the other, the manager automatically proclaims himself/herself the leader. S/he exaggerates the distance between them.¹⁰³

Korda, also, made an observation concerning office windows. He stated that the desk should be placed directly in front of a window. In this position, others within the power circle will be forced to look into the glare of the sun in order to view the individual in the position of control.¹⁰⁴ This produces a halo effect and, thus, a stronger image of power.

Korda discussed power areas within buildings. His writings indicated that the power area (or floor) of an organization will be a

¹⁰¹ Korda, p. 283.

¹⁰² Korda, pp. 116-17.

¹⁰³ Julius Fast, The Body Language of Sex, Power and Aggression (New York: Jove Publications, 1977), p. 101.

¹⁰⁴ Korda, p. 22.

well protected area. It will not allow for the easiest access from possible intruders, either above or below.¹⁰⁵ Korda further indicated that power tends to communicate itself from corner to corner in an X-shaped pattern. The closer an office is to the center of a floor, less power is indicated.¹⁰⁶

The psychology of color is an area of interest as it relates to the concept of power. Faber Birren pointed out certain basic facts about human likes and dislikes for color. Basically, he stated that a well adjusted individual will like color in general and warm colors in particular.¹⁰⁷

In the well-known Rorschach's color test, an emotionally responsive person will react quite freely to color in general. An emotionally inhibited person may be shocked or embarrassed by the intrusion of color into his/her inner life. The rigid, emotionally indifferent type may remain unaffected.¹⁰⁸

Leslie Kane discussed the psychology behind several of the most common colors. Kane stated that in any given society, particular colors affect individuals within that society in the same distinct manner.¹⁰⁹

The color red is a brilliant, intense color which may be termed "the exciter." Mental associations with red include "hot," fire and

¹⁰⁵ Korda, p. 81.

¹⁰⁶ Korda, p. 75.

¹⁰⁷ Faber Birren, Color Psychology and Color Therapy (New York: University Books, 1961), p. 138.

¹⁰⁸ Birren, p. 139.

¹⁰⁹ Leslie Kane, "The Power of Color," Health, July 1982, p. 36.

blood, Tests conducted at UCLA showed the psychological reactions of people to rooms of different colors. It was discovered that blood pressures, respiration rate, heart beat, muscle activity, eyeblinks and brain waves all increased when a person was in a red room. Thus, the color red has come to be associated with "danger."¹¹⁰

Kane stated that blue was a color of sober tranquility and serenity. It "paints" mental images of sky and water. Tests at the University of Alberta, in Edmonton, Canada, showed that blue surroundings can have an intense calming effect on behaviorally disturbed children. This calming effect can even be true if the child is blind. When the blind child's eyes are opened so that color can strike the retina, the effects can be the same as if the child were sighted. Kane concluded that this strongly suggests that "color has a direct biochemical pathway to the brain."¹¹¹

The color green is the "masquerader." Some people believe green to be quieting, refreshing, peaceful and nascent. Others are irritated by the color, equating it to disease, terror, guilt and envy. Kane stated that authorities insist that it is only when one shade of green is present that the negative impressions will result. She stated that nothing is more tranquil than a walk in the forest, since a forest contains a countless number of green shades, hues and tones.¹¹²

Korda devoted considerable conversation to the idea of using color to achieve personal power. He reported that currently there are "executive color consultants" who will analyze a businessperson's

¹¹⁰ Kane, p. 36.

¹¹¹ Kane, p. 37.

¹¹² Kane, pp. 37-38.

character and appearance to find the color most conducive to his/her personal power. The consultant will arrive at a "basic power color" and then proceed to advise clients on office decoration, shirts, ties, socks, cars and even their home decor.¹¹³

According to Korda, blue is considered the most powerful color. Yellow is often thought to be frivolous and weak; beige and tan are too neutral to convey power; red is frightening and brown depressing. White, however, gives a sense of space and freedom. Korda stated that the most powerful color combination is blue (for power), white (for freedom), and a touch of red (for a hint of aggression).¹¹⁴

Summary

The literature reviewed in this chapter dealt primarily with the history, definition, terminology, theories, concepts and classifications of power. Particular emphasis was placed on an examination of personality and environmental characteristics which have relevance to a study of power in higher education. The topics were reviewed in accordance with the framework determined as relevant to the study.

Following an introductory statement, the key elements of power were reviewed. The historical evaluation of power indicated a seeming human obsession with power, which has existed throughout the ages. This obsession was noted throughout the writings of the great philosophers, as well as simply by the actions of humans as members of a notably violent species.

¹¹³ Korda, pp. 89-90.

¹¹⁴ Korda, p. 91.

The ambiguity, throughout literature, concerning the definition and acceptable terminology of power was examined. Definitions from various disciplines were reviewed. Terminology often associated with or substituted for the term "power" were discussed. The major thrust of these sections was toward an enlightened awareness of the fundamental views of key educators, social scientists and political scientists concerning the concept of power.

The literature review concerning theories, concepts and classifications of power included an examination of field, exchange, political science and decision theories. Various concepts and classifications of power were examined as they relate to the interdependent properties of resources, dependencies and alternatives. Four stages of ego development were discussed and compared to the concept of power.

A variety of personality and environmental characteristics were defined in terms of their possible impact on personal power. These characteristics included sex; height; age; the impact of formal organizations, specifically institutions of higher education; spatial arrangement of office furnishings and office locations; and color psychology. Personalized and socialized power motives were discussed; and the lack of desire to power, or affiliation, was defined.

Authors and research studies cited in the review of literature indicated a basic human desire to power. This desire to power, or power motivation, was perceived as potentially manifesting itself through many personal, physical and/or environmental characteristics.

CHAPTER THREE

Research Methodology and Instruments

Introduction

Chapter 3 contains the research design, selection of the sample, procedures followed in collecting the data, and a summary of the statistical analysis of the data.

Research Design

The techniques of ex post facto research were used in this study. These techniques are concerned with discovering possible causes for a particular behavior pattern by "comparing subjects in whom the pattern is present with similar subjects in whom it is absent or present to a lesser degree."¹ Fred N. Kerlinger defined ex post facto research as follows:

Ex post facto research is systematic empirical inquiry in which the scientist does not have direct control of independent variables because their manifestations have already occurred or because they are inherently not manipulatable. Inferences about relations among variables are made, without direct intervention, from concomitant variation of independent and dependent variables.²

Ex post facto research is widely used in the behavioral sciences. This method will continue to be used in education

¹ Walter Borg and Meredith Samien Gall, Educational Research: An Introduction, 3rd ed. (New York: Longman, 1979), p. 445.

² Fred N. Kerlinger, Foundations of Behavioral Research, 2nd ed. (New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston, 1973), pp. 391-92.

since it is impossible, impracticable, or unthinkable to manipulate such variables as aptitude, intelligence, personality traits, and some variables that might present unacceptable threat to human beings.³

It is important, however, that the limitations of ex post facto research be recognized

1. The independent variables cannot be manipulated;
2. Subjects cannot be randomly assigned to treatment groups; and
3. Causes are often multiple rather than single.⁴

Despite these possible limitations in the use of ex post facto research, this method is useful for identifying possible causes of observed variations in behavior. This, in turn, can be valuable in giving direction to later experimental studies, which are more likely to produce clear-cut results.⁵

Selection of the Sample

The purpose of this study was to determine if relationships exist between selected characteristics of higher education administrators and their perceived power motivation and power style. The academic administrators at East Tennessee State University were chosen as being a representative group for evaluation. This selection was considered to be manageable.

A listing of current academic administrators was secured from the office of the Vice President for Academic Affairs (see Appendix B).

³ John W. Best, Research in Education, 3rd ed. (Englewood Cliffs, New Jersey: Prentice Hall, 1977), p. 152.

⁴ Best, p. 152.

⁵ Borg and Gall, p. 446.

The research sample included one Vice President for Academic Affairs, one Associate Vice President for Academic Affairs, one Assistant to the Vice President for Academic Affairs, nine Deans, twelve Associate/Assistant Deans, twenty-one Directors, three Coordinators, and forty-eight Chairpersons. This research sample comprised an intact group of academic administrators at East Tennessee State University.

Contact was made with the President of East Tennessee State University. An explanation of the study was given, and permission to conduct the study was requested. A letter with written permission was received from the President (see Appendix A).

The Instrument

The Power Management Inventory developed by Jay Hall and James Hawker was selected as the appropriate instrument for use in this study (see Appendix E). Contact was made with a representative of Teleometrics International of The Woodlands, Texas, to arrange for the purchase of the instrument (see Appendix C). The purchase of 110 copies of the instrument was arranged.

The Power Management Inventory was designed to measure power motivation and power style. The instrument was, therefore, developed with two parts.

Part I of the Power Management Inventory, concerned with power motivation, was designed to suggest one of three types of power orientations: Personalized Power (PP), Socialized Power (SP), and Affiliative Motive (AM). A total of twenty item stems were developed along with appropriate response items representing the three power orientations.

The items were arranged so that each stem appeared in a forced choice format with pairs of responses reflecting the three categories of response. Each item stem appeared three times, resulting in a total of sixty items. For every item the respondent was asked to distribute five points between two response alternatives. As a result, the respondent could distribute 300 points among the three response styles.

The alternative responses were labeled A, B and C to represent the PP, SP, and AM orientations, respectively. The results yielded three scores which were defined by James Hawker and Jay Hall as follows:

Type A (Personalized Power Motive): The tendency to value and desire power for purposes of personal aggrandizement and control. High A scores indicate a personal need to be the center of attention, generally in control of interpersonal situations, and to prevail in most encounters with others.

Type B (Socialized Power Motive): The tendency to value and desire power for purposes of serving and benefiting the common welfare. High B scores indicate a personal need to have impact on cultures and systems and to be an influence for widespread enhancement.

Type C (Affiliative Motive): The tendency to value being liked and warmly regarded by other people. High C scores indicate a personal need to be of service, to nurture and give support to others, and to reassure and make others comfortable--even when these are done at one's own expense or to the detriment of one's other personal aspirations.⁶

Part II of the Power Management Inventory, concerned with power style, was designed to reflect a person's typical mode of responding when dealing with others in a managerial or leadership role. Ten items were constructed to reflect aspects of the manager's job. Each item was presented with an eleven-point scale. The respondent was

⁶ James R. Hawker and Jay Hall, "The Development and Initial Validation of a Scale for Assessing Power Motivation" (The Woodlands, Texas: Teleometrics International, 1981), p. 2.

instructed to make an "X" at the appropriate spot on the continuum to indicate how s/he would handle a given situation. Scores were summed and divided by one hundred to yield a Power Style Index (PSI). The two sections of the Power Management Inventory were designed to provide a comparison between one's espoused theory (power motivation) and one's theory in action (power style).⁷

Information concerning the internal consistency and validity of the Power Management Inventory was supplied with the instrument. To determine the internal consistency, coefficient alpha was computed for each of the three power types in Part I and for the ten items comprising Part II of the Power Management Inventory. The PP, SP and AM types were shown to have internal consistency reliabilities of .77, .67 and .74 respectively, yielding an average internal consistency reliability of .73 across the three types.⁸ Part II of the Power Management Inventory yielded a coefficient of .66.⁹ Taken together, these data indicated that the Power Management Inventory is acceptably reliable as a measuring instrument.¹⁰

The construct validity of the instrument was evaluated by comparing scores on the Power Management Inventory with the motivational scales measured by the Edwards Personal Preference Schedule. A significant correlation was noted between the two instruments.¹¹ A second approach, utilizing discriminant function analysis, attempted to separate the three

⁷ Hawker and Hall, p. 2.

⁸ Hawker and Hall, p. 4.

⁹ Hawker and Hall, p. 4.

¹⁰ Hawker and Hall, p. 4.

¹¹ Hawker and Hall, p. 4.

types of power motivation into a "pure" form, which indicated a high degree of separation among the three power motivation orientations.¹²

It was concluded that the Power Management Inventory is valid and consistent with the underlying principles of power motivation and is sufficiently reliable for training and research purposes.¹³

Data Collection

Once approval to pursue this study was granted by the Advanced Graduate Committee and the President of East Tennessee State University, each participant included in the intact group of academic administrators was mailed a questionnaire, a personal data sheet, and an Informed Consent Form. A cover letter explaining the purpose of the study, assuring anonymity and soliciting personal responses was included (see Appendix G).

Two self-addressed envelopes were included with the survey instruments. The respondents were asked to sign and return the Informed Consent Form in one envelope and the questionnaire and personal data sheet in the second envelope. The cover letter explained to all survey participants that their names were not to be placed on the questionnaire or personal data sheet.

Two weeks after the initial contact with the respondents, a follow-up letter was mailed to those who had not responded (see Appendix H). When 50 percent of the questionnaires were returned and one month had elapsed, the data were recorded on coding forms, keypunched, and submitted

¹² Hawker and Hall, p. 4.

¹³ Hawker and Hall, p. 4.

to East Tennessee State University Computer Center for statistical analysis.

Data Analysis

The declarative format for each hypothesis was stated in Chapter 1. For purposes of statistical analysis, the null format for each hypothesis was tested. The null hypotheses stated that no difference existed between the variables studied. The non-parametric statistic chi square was used to determine where significant differences existed in the hypotheses where parametric assumptions could not be met. A t-test for independent data was used to determine if two means were significantly different in those hypotheses in which parametric assumptions could be met.

Summary

The research methodology and procedures were presented in this chapter. The instrument chosen for the study was the Power Management Inventory developed and validated by Jay Hall and James Hawker.

An intact group of academic administrators at East Tennessee State University was selected as the population for this study. When a minimum of 50 percent return of the questionnaires was received, the data were analyzed using chi square and the t-test for independent data.

CHAPTER FOUR

Presentation and Analysis of Data

Introduction

The results and findings obtained from the data gathered in this study are presented in this chapter. The hypotheses tested with these data are set forth in Chapter 1. These hypotheses were tested to determine relationships and differences between selected personal characteristics of higher education administrators and their perceived levels of power motivation and power style among members of a selected group at East Tennessee State University.

Procedures for the statistical treatment of the data were outlined in Chapter 3. Further explanation and clarification of these procedures will be necessary throughout this chapter.

The non-parametric statistic chi square was used to determine where significant differences existed for Hypotheses 1, 3, 5, 7, 9, 11, 13, 15, 17, 19, 21 and 23. A t-test for independent data was used to determine where significant differences existed for Hypotheses 2, 4, 6, 8, 10, 12, 14, 16, 18, 20, 22 and 24. The .05 level of significance was established for accepting or rejecting the hypotheses of this study. For purposes of clarity and ease of understanding, those hypotheses analyzed with the statistic chi square were reported first, followed by those hypotheses analyzed with a t-test for independent data.

Reporting Analysis of the Hypotheses

Hypotheses Analyzed Using Chi Square

The chi square statistic was selected for analyzing hypotheses 1, 3, 5, 7, 9, 11, 13, 15, 17, 19, 21 and 23, because parametric assumptions could not be met.

The chi square test applies only to discrete data, counted rather than measured values. The test is a test of independence, the idea that one variable is not affected by, or related to another variable. The chi square is not a measure of the degree of relationship. It is merely used to estimate the likelihood that some factor other than chance (sampling error) accounts for the apparent relationship.¹

The chi square test requires that the expected frequency in each cell not be too small. It was, therefore, necessary to combine cells in order to meet this requirement. Stanley Siegel suggested that when $N > 40$, chi square corrected for continuity should be used.² The statistical software package utilized for the analysis of this data calculates Yate's corrected chi square.

Cells were combined into a 2 X 2 format for all the hypotheses tested with the statistic chi square. In each case, the power motivation types were collapsed in the same manner utilizing the interpretation rationale of the publishers Jay Hall and James Hawker. In their discussion of the instrument, Hall and Hawker stated that both the

¹ John W. Best, Research in Education, 3rd ed. (Englewood Cliffs, New Jersey: Prentice Hall, 1977), pp. 289-90.

² Stanley Siegel, Nonparametric Statistics for the Behavioral Sciences (New York: McGraw-Hill, 1956), p. 110.

personalized power motive and the socialized power motive were tendencies to value and desire power.³ Both the socialized and personalized power motives "indicate a strong desire for impact, strength and influence as a manager."⁴ Conversely, if the affiliation motive was identified, an aversion to power is indicated.⁵ Therefore, types A and B (personalized and socialized power motives) were combined into cell one. Type C constituted cell two. This format was utilized for all the hypotheses tested with the statistic chi square.

Null Hypothesis 1

Null Hypothesis 1 is as follows: there will be no significant difference between the power motivation types of male administrators and the power motivation types of female administrators. The power motivation type determined in Part I of the Power Management Inventory and question 1 of the Personal Data Sheet were utilized for this analysis. The results of the analysis are listed in Table 1, page 54.

A comparison was made between the power motivation types of male and female administrators. From the results, it was concluded that of 50 male administrators surveyed, 21, or 42 percent of the males sampled, had a tendency to value and desire power. By comparison, 6 of the 14 female administrators, or 42.9 percent of the females sampled, had a

³ James R. Hawker and Jay Hall, "The Development and Initial Validation of a Scale for Assessing Power Motivation" (The Woodlands, Texas: Teleometrics International, 1981), p. 2.

⁴ James R. Hawker and Jay Hall, "Interpreting Your Scores from the Power Management Inventory" (The Woodlands, Texas: Teleometrics International, 1981), p. 2.

⁵ Hawker and Hall, "Interpreting Your Scores," p. 2.

tendency to value and desire power. Of the 64 administrators surveyed, 27, both male and female, had a tendency to value and desire power, representing 42.2 percent of the study population.

Table 1
Comparison Between the Power Motivation Types of
Male and Female Administrators

Power and Affiliation Types	Male Administrators	Female Administrators	Total
Power	21	6	27
Affiliation	29	8	37
Total	50	14	64

$\chi^2 = 0.0$ $df = 1$ significance = 1.0000

It was further concluded from the data that 29 of the 50 male administrators surveyed, or 58 percent of the sample, were identified as having an aversion to power, which was classified as the affiliation type. Eight of the 14 female administrators, or 57.1 percent of the females sampled, were classified as the affiliation type indicating an aversion to power. Of the 64 male and female administrators surveyed, 37 were classified as the affiliation type. This group represented 57.8 percent of the study population.

It was hypothesized that there would be no significant difference between the power motivation types of male and female administrators. With a chi square analysis of 0.0 and a level of significance at 1.0000, it was concluded that no significant difference existed. Therefore, the

null hypothesis that there would be no significant difference failed to be rejected.

Null Hypothesis 3

Null Hypothesis 3 is as follows: there will be no significant difference between the power motivation types of taller administrators and the power motivation types of shorter administrators. The power motivation type determined in Part I of the Power Management Inventory and question 2 of the Personal Data Sheet were utilized for this analysis. The results of the analysis are listed in Table 2.

Table 2
Comparison Between the Power Motivation Types of
Taller and Shorter Administrators

Power and Affiliation Type	5'5" or under	5'6" or over	Total
Power	3	23	26
Affiliation	8	29	37
Total	11	52	63

$$\chi^2 = .49119 \quad df = 1 \quad \text{significance} = .4834$$

A comparison was made between the power motivation types of taller and shorter administrators. In order to conform to a 2 X x chi square table, the data were collapsed into two response categories: (a) 5'5" or under; and (b) 5'6" or over. For the purposes of data analysis, heights 5'5" or under were considered below average height for both males and females. Heights 5'6" or over were considered above average height for both males and females.

From the results, it was concluded that of 63 administrators responding, 11, or 17.5 percent of the populations sampled, were classified as below average height. Of this 17.5 percent, 3 administrators, or 4.8 percent of the total sample, had a tendency to value and desire power. By comparison, 8 administrators, or 12.7 percent of the total sample, below average in height were classified as the affiliation type.

It was further concluded from the data that 52 administrators, or 82.5 percent of the population sampled, were classified as above average height. Of this 82.5 percent, 23 administrators, or 36.5 percent of the total sample, had a tendency to value and desire power. By comparison, 29 administrators, or 46.0 percent of the total sample, above average in height were classified as the affiliation type.

It was hypothesized that there would be no significant difference between the power motivation types of taller and shorter administrators. With a chi square analysis of .49119 and a level of significance at .4834, it was concluded that no significant difference existed. Therefore, the null hypothesis that there would be no significant difference failed to be rejected.

Null Hypothesis 5

Null Hypothesis 5 is as follows: there will be no significant difference between the power motivation types of older administrators and the power motivation types of younger administrators. The power motivation type determined in Part I of the Power Management Inventory and question 3 of the Personal Data Sheet were utilized for this analysis. The results of the analysis are listed in Table 3, page 57.

Table 3
Comparison Between the Power Motivation Types of
Older and Younger Administrators

Power and Affiliation Type	50 years or under	51 years or older	Total
Power	15	12	27
Affiliation	30	7	37
Total	45	19	64

$\chi^2 = 3.72613$ $df = 1$ significance = .0500

A comparison was made between the power motivation types of older and younger administrators. In order to conform to a 2 X 2 chi square table, the data were collapsed into two response categories: (a) 50 years and younger; and (b) 51 years and older.

From the results, it was concluded that of 64 administrators surveyed, 45, or 70.3 percent of the population sampled, were classified as younger administrators. Of this 70.3 percent, 15 administrators, or 23.4 percent of the total sample, had a tendency to value and desire power. By comparison, 30 administrators, or 46.9 percent of the total sample, who were younger administrators, were classified as the affiliation type.

It was further concluded from the data that 19 administrators, or 29.7 percent of the population sampled, were classified as older administrators. Of this 29.7 percent, 12 administrators, or 18.8 percent of the total sample, had a tendency to value and desire power. By comparison, 7 administrators, or 10.9 percent of the total sample, which were older administrators, were classified as the affiliation type.

It was hypothesized that there would be no significant difference between the power motivation types of older and younger administrators. With a chi square analysis of 3.72613 and a level of significance of .0500, it was concluded that a significant difference existed. Therefore, the null hypothesis that there would be no significant difference was rejected.

Null Hypothesis 7

Null Hypothesis 7 is as follows: there will be no significant difference between the power motivation types of Vice Presidents/Associate or Assistant Vice Presidents, Deans and Departmental Chairpersons and the power motivation types of Directors, Coordinators and other administrators. The power motivation type determined in Part I of the Power Management Inventory and question 4 of the Personal Data Sheet were utilized for this analysis. The results of the analysis are listed in Table 4, page 59.

A comparison was made between the power motivation types of administrators in various administrative positions. In order to conform to a 2 X 2 chi square table, the data were collapsed into two response categories: (a) Vice Presidents/Associate or Assistant Vice Presidents, Deans and Departmental Chairpersons; and (b) Director, Coordinators and other administrators.

From the results, it was concluded that of 64 administrators surveyed, 41, or 64.1 percent of the population samples, were classified as Vice President/Associate or Assistant Vice President, Dean or

Departmental Chairperson. Of this 64.1 percent, 14 administrators, or 21.9 percent of the total sample, had a tendency to value and desire power. By comparison, 27 administrators, or 42.2 percent of the total sample, who were Vice Presidents/Associate or Assistant Vice Presidents, Deans or Departmental Chairpersons, were classified as the affiliation type.

Table 4

Comparison Between the Power Motivation Types of
Vice Presidents/Associate or Assistant Vice
Presidents, Deans and Departmental Chair-
persons; and Directors, Coordinators
and Others

Power and Affiliation Type	Vice Presidents/ Associate or Assistant Vice Presidents, Deans and Departmental Chairpersons	Directors, Coordinators, Others	Total
Power	14	13	27
Affiliation	27	10	37
Total	41	23	64

$$\chi^2 = 2.17675 \quad df = 1 \quad \text{significance} = .1401$$

It was further concluded from the data that 23 administrators, or 35.9 percent of the population sampled, were classified as Directors, Coordinators or other administrators. Of this 35.9 percent, 13 administrators, or 20.3 percent of the total sample, had a tendency to value and desire power. By comparison, 10 administrators, or 15.6 percent of the total sample, who were Directors, Coordinators or other administrators, were classified as the affiliation type.

It was hypothesized that there would be no significant difference between the power motivation types of administrators in various administrative positions. With a chi square analysis of 2.17675 and a level of significance at .1401, it was concluded that no significant difference existed. Therefore, the null hypothesis that there would be no significant difference failed to be rejected.

Null Hypothesis 9

Null Hypothesis 9 is as follows: there will be no significant difference between the power motivation types of administrators selected by members of their Colleges/Schools/Departments or search committees and the power motivation types of administrators selected by direct appointment by their superiors. The power motivation type determined in Part I of the Power Management Inventory and question 5 of the Personal Data Sheet were utilized for this analysis. The results of the analysis are listed in Table 5, page 61.

A comparison was made between the power motivation types of administrators selected for their positions by various groups and those administrators selected by direct appointment by a superior. In order to conform to a 2 X 2 chi square table, the data were collapsed into two response categories: (a) administrators selected by members of their Colleges/Schools/Departments or search committees; and (b) administrators selected by direct appointment by their superiors.

From the results, it was concluded that of 64 administrators surveyed, 39, or 60.9 percent of the population sampled, were classified as being selected for their position by members of their Colleges/Schools/

Departments or search committees. Of this 60.9 percent, 12 administrators, or 18.9 percent of the total sample, had a tendency to value and desire power. By comparison, 27 administrators, or 42.2 percent of the total sample, who were selected by members of their Colleges/Schools/Departments or search committees, were classified as the affiliation type.

Table 5

Comparison Between the Power Motivation Types of
Administrators Group Selected and Directly
Appointed to Current Positions

Power and Affiliation Type	College/School/ Department or Search Committee	Direct Appointment by Superior	Total
Power	12	15	27
Affiliation	27	10	37
Total	39	25	64

$$\chi^2 = 4.20582 \quad df = 1 \quad \text{significance} = .0403$$

It was further concluded from the data that 25 administrators, or 39.1 percent of the population sampled, were classified as being selected for their positions by direct appointment by their superiors. Of this 39.1 percent, 15 administrators, or 23.4 percent of the total sample, had a tendency to value and desire power. By comparison, 10 administrators, or 15.6 percent of the total sample, who were selected by direct appointment by their superior, were classified as the affiliation type.

It was hypothesized that there would be no significant difference between the power motivation types of administrators selected for their

positions by various groups and those administrators selected by direct appointment by a superior. With a chi square analysis of 4.20582 and a level of significance at .0403, it was concluded that a significant difference existed. Therefore, the null hypothesis that there would be no significant difference was rejected.

Null Hypothesis 11

Null Hypothesis 11 is as follows: there will be no significant difference in the power motivation types of administrators whose positions were advertised outside their Colleges/Schools/Departments and the power motivation types of administrators whose positions were not advertised outside their Colleges/Schools/Departments. The power motivation type determined in Part I of the Power Management Inventory and question 6 of the Personal Data Sheet were utilized for this analysis. The results of the analysis are listed in Table 6.

Table 6

Comparison Between the Power Motivation Types of
Administrators Whose Positions Were Advertised
and Were Not Advertised Outside College/
School/Department

Power and Affiliation Type	Advertised Outside College/ School/Department	Not Advertised Outside College/ School/Department	Total
Power	15	12	27
Affiliation	19	16	35
Total	34	28	62

$\chi^2 = 0.0$ $df = 1$ significance = 1.0000

A comparison was made between the power motivation types of administrators whose positions were advertised outside their Colleges/Schools/Departments and those administrators whose positions were not advertised outside their Colleges/Schools/Departments. From the results, it was concluded that of the 62 administrators responding, 34, or 54.8 percent of the population sampled, were classified as having positions which were advertised outside their Colleges/Schools/Departments. Of this 54.8 percent, 15 administrators, or 24.2 percent of the total sample, had a tendency to value and desire power. By comparison, 19 administrators, or 30.6 percent of the total sample, whose positions were advertised outside their Colleges/Schools/Departments, were classified as the affiliation type.

It was further concluded from the data that 28 administrators, or 45.2 percent of the population sampled, were classified as having positions which were not advertised outside their Colleges/Schools/Departments. Of this 45.2 percent, 12 administrators, or 19.4 percent of the total sample, had a tendency to value and desire power. By comparison, 16 administrators, or 25.8 percent of the total sample, whose positions were not advertised outside their Colleges/Schools/Departments, were classified as the affiliation type.

It was hypothesized that there would be no significant difference between the power motivation types of administrators whose positions were advertised outside their Colleges/Schools/Departments and those administrators whose positions were not advertised outside their Colleges/Schools/Departments. With a chi square analysis of 0.0 and a level of significance at 1.0000, it was concluded that no significant difference existed.

Therefore, the null hypothesis that there would be no significant difference failed to be rejected.

Null Hypothesis 13

Null Hypothesis 13 is as follows: there will be no significant difference in the power motivation types of administrators who have served in their current positions for a longer length of time and the power motivation types of administrators who have served in their current positions for a shorter length of time. The power motivation type determined in Part I of the Power Management Inventory and question 7 of the Personal Data Sheet were utilized for this analysis. The results of the analysis are listed in Table 7.

Table 7

Comparison Between the Power Motivation Types of
Administrators Serving Longer and Shorter
Lengths of Time in Current Positions

Power and Affiliation Type	5 years or less	6 years or more	Total
Power	21	6	27
Affiliation	25	12	37
Total	46	18	64

$$\chi^2 = .37912 \quad df = 1 \quad \text{significance} = .5381$$

A comparison was made between the power motivation types of administrators who have served longer and shorter lengths of time in their current position. In order to conform to a 2 X 2 chi square table,

the data were collapsed into two response categories: (a) five years or less; and (b) six years or more.

From the results, it was concluded that of the 64 administrators surveyed, 46, or 71.9 percent of the population sampled, were classified as having served in their current positions for five years or less. Of this 71.9 percent, 21 administrators, or 32.8 percent of the total sample, had a tendency to value and desire power. By comparison, 25 administrators, or 39.1 percent of the total sample, who had served in their current positions five years or less, were classified as the affiliation type.

It was further concluded from the data that 18 administrators, or 28.1 percent of the population sampled, were classified as having served in their current positions for six years or more. Of this 28.1 percent, 6 administrators, or 9.4 percent of the total sample, had a tendency to value and desire power. By comparison, 12 administrators, or 18.8 percent of the total sample, who had served in their current positions six years or more, were classified as the affiliation type.

It was hypothesized that there would be no significant difference between the power motivation types of administrators who have served longer and shorter lengths of time in their current positions. With a chi square analysis of .37912 and a level of significance at .5381, it was concluded that no significant difference existed. Therefore, the null hypothesis that there would be no significant difference failed to be rejected.

Null Hypothesis 15

Null Hypothesis 15 is as follows: there will be no significant

difference in the power motivation types of administrators who have been employed for a longer length of time at the current institution and the power motivation types of administrators who have been employed at the current institution for a shorter length of time. The power motivation type determined in Part I of the Power Management Inventory and question 8 of the Personal Data Sheet were utilized for this analysis. The results of the analysis are listed in Table 8.

Table 8

Comparison Between the Power Motivation Types of
Administrators Employed Longer and Shorter
Lengths of Time at the Current Institution

Power and Affiliation Type	10 years or less	11 years or more	Total
Power	20	7	27
Affiliation	20	17	37
Total	40	24	64

$$\chi^2 = 1.88348 \quad df = 1 \quad \text{significance} = .1699$$

A comparison was made between the power motivation types of administrators who have been employed longer and shorter lengths of time at the current institution. In order to conform to a 2 X 2 chi square table, the data were collapsed into two response categories: (a) ten years or less; and (b) eleven years or more.

From the results, it was concluded that of the 64 administrators surveyed, 40, or 62.5 percent of the population sampled, were classified as having been employed at the current institution for ten years or less.

Of this 62.5 percent, 20 administrators, or 31.3 percent of the total sample, had a tendency to value and desire power. By comparison, 20 administrators, or 31.3 percent of the total sample, who had been employed at the current institution ten years or less, were classified as the affiliation type.

It was further concluded from the data that 24 administrators, or 37.5 percent of the population sampled, were classified as having been employed at the current institution for eleven years or more. Of this 37.5 percent, 7 administrators, or 10.9 percent of the total sample, had a tendency to value and desire power. By comparison, 17 administrators, or 26.6 percent of the total sample, who had been employed at the current institution for eleven years or more, were classified as the affiliation type.

It was hypothesized that there would be no significant difference between the power motivation types of administrators who have been employed longer and shorter lengths of time at the current institution. With a chi square analysis of 1.88348 and a level of significance at .1699, it was concluded that no significant difference existed. Therefore, the null hypothesis that there would be no significant difference failed to be rejected.

Null Hypothesis 17

Null Hypothesis 17 is as follows: there will be no significant difference in the power motivation types of administrators who select one color as their favorite and the power motivation types of administrators who select other colors as their favorites. The power motivation

type determined in Part I of the Power Management Inventory and question 9 of the Personal Data Sheet were utilized for this analysis. The results of the analysis are listed in Table 9.

Table 9

Comparison Between the Power Motivation Types of
Administrators Selecting Blue and Selecting
Other Colors as Favorite Colors

Power and Affiliation Type	Other Colors	Blue	Total
Power	9	18	27
Affiliation	12	25	37
Total	21	43	64

$\chi^2 = 0.0$ $df = 1$ significance = 1.0000

A comparison was made between the power motivation types of administrators who selected blue as their favorite color and administrators who selected other colors as their favorite. In order to conform to a 2 X 2 chi square table, the data were collapsed into two response categories: (a) other colors; and (b) blue.

From the results, it was concluded that of 64 administrators surveyed, 21, or 32.8 percent of the population sampled, selected colors other than blue as their favorite color. Of the 32.8 percent, 9 administrators, or 14.1 percent of the total sample, had a tendency to value and desire power. By comparison, 12 administrators, or 18.8 percent of the total sample, who selected colors other than blue as being their favorite color, were classified as the affiliation type.

It was further concluded from the data that 43 administrators, or 67.2 percent of the population sampled, selected blue as their favorite color. Of this 67.2 percent, 18 administrators, or 28.1 percent of the total sample, had a tendency to value and desire power. By comparison, 25 administrators, or 39.1 percent of the total sample, who selected blue as their favorite color, were classified as the affiliation type.

It was hypothesized that there would be no significant difference between the power motivation types of administrators who selected blue as their favorite color and administrators who selected other colors as their favorite. With a chi square analysis of 0.0 and a level of significance at 1.0000, it was concluded that no significant difference existed. Therefore, the null hypothesis that there would be no significant difference failed to be rejected.

Null Hypothesis 19

Null Hypothesis 19 is as follows: there will be no significant difference in the power motivation types of administrators who select one color as their least favorite and the power motivation types of administrators who select other colors as their least favorite. The power motivation type determined in Part I of the Power Management Inventory and question 10 of the Personal Data Sheet were utilized for this analysis. The results of the analysis are listed in Table 10, page 70.

A comparison was made between the power motivation types of administrators who selected blue as their least favorite color and administrators who selected other colors as their least favorite. In order to conform

to a 2 X 2 chi square table, the data were collapsed into two response categories: (a) other colors; and (b) blue.

Table 10

Comparison Between the Power Motivation Types of
Administrators Selecting Blue and Selecting
Other Colors as Least Favorite Colors

Power and Affiliation Type	Other Colors	Blue	Total
Power	26	1	27
Affiliation	37	0	37
Total	63	1	64

$$\chi^2 = .02542 \quad df = 1 \quad \text{significance} = .8733$$

From the results, it was concluded that of 64 administrators surveyed, 63, or 98.4 percent of the population sampled, selected colors other than blue as their least favorite color. Of the 98.4 percent, 26 administrators, or 40.6 percent of the total sample, had a tendency to value and desire power. By comparison, 37 administrators, or 57.8 percent of the total sample, who selected colors other than blue as their least favorite color, were classified as the affiliative type.

It was further concluded from the data that 1 administrator, or 1.6 percent of the population sampled, selected blue as his/her least favorite color. This administrator was classified as having a tendency to value and desire power. No administrators classified as the affiliation type selected blue as their least favorite color.

It was hypothesized that there would be no significant difference

between the power motivation types of administrators who selected blue as their least favorite color and administrators who selected other colors as their least favorite. With a chi square analysis of .02542 and a level of significance at .8733, it was concluded that no significant difference existed. Therefore, the null hypothesis that there would be no significant difference failed to be rejected.

Null Hypothesis 21

Null Hypothesis 21 is as follows: there will be no significant difference in the power motivation types of administrators who select one position for their office furnishings and the power motivation types of administrators who select other positions for their office furnishings. The power motivation type determined in Part I of the Power Management Inventory and question 11 of the Personal Data Sheet were utilized for this analysis. The results of the analysis are listed in Table 11.

Table 11

Comparison Between the Power Motivation Types of
Administrators Placing Desk in front of
Window and in Other Positions

Power and Affiliation Type	Desk in Front of Window	Desk in Other Positions	Total
Power	5	15	20
Affiliation	9	20	29
Total	14	35	49

$\chi^2 = .01901$ $df = 1$ significance = .8903

A comparison was made between the power motivation types of administrators who selected one position for their office furnishings and those administrators who selected other positions for their office furnishings. In order to conform to a 2 X 2 chi square table, the data were collapsed into two response categories: (a) desk in front of window; and (b) desk in another location.

From the results, it was concluded that of 49 administrators responding, 14, or 28.6 percent of the population sampled, had located their desk in front of a window. Of the 28.6 percent, 5 administrators, or 10.2 percent of the total sample, had a tendency to value and desire power. By comparison, 9 administrators, or 18.4 percent of the total sample, who located their desk in front of a window, were classified as the affiliation type. Fifteen administrators who had no windows in their offices were not included in this analysis.

It was further concluded from the data that 35 administrators, or 71.4 percent of the population sampled, placed their desks in other locations. Of this 71.4 percent, 15 administrators, or 30.6 percent of the total sample, had a tendency to value and desire power. By comparison, 20 administrators, or 40.8 percent of the total sample, who placed their desks in other locations, were classified as the affiliation type.

It was hypothesized that there would be no significant difference between the power motivation types of administrators who selected one position for their office furnishings and those administrators who selected other positions for their office furnishings. With a chi square analysis of .01901, and a level of significance at .8903, it was concluded

that no significant difference existed. Therefore, the null hypothesis that there would be no significant difference failed to be rejected.

Null Hypothesis 23

Null Hypothesis 23 is as follows: there will be no significant difference in the power motivation types of administrators whose offices are located on the middle level of their buildings and the power motivation types of administrators whose offices are located on the other levels of the buildings. The power motivation type determined in Part I of the Power Management Inventory and questions 12 and 13 of the Personal Data Sheet were utilized for this analysis. The results of the analysis are listed in Table 12.

Table 12

Comparison Between the Power Motivation Types of
Administrators with Offices on Middle Levels
and Other Levels of Buildings

Power and Affiliation Type	Office on Middle Level	Office on Other Level	Total
Power	8	16	24
Affiliation	11	23	34
Total	19	39	58

$$\chi^2 = 0.0 \quad df = 1 \quad \text{significance} = 1.0000$$

A comparison was made between the power motivation types of administrators whose offices are located on the middle level of their buildings and the administrators whose offices are located on other levels of the buildings. In order to conform to a 2 X 2 chi square table, the data were collapsed into two response categories: (a) office

location on the middle level of the building; and (b) office location on other levels of the building.

From the results, it was concluded that of 58 administrators responding, 19, or 32.8 percent of the population sampled, had offices located on the middle level of their buildings. Of the 32.8 percent, 8 administrators, or 13.8 percent of the total sample, had a tendency to value and desire power. By comparison, 11 administrators, or 19.0 percent of the total sample, whose offices were located on the middle level of their buildings, were classified as the affiliation type.

It was further concluded from the data that 39 administrators, or 67.2 percent of the population sampled, had offices located on other levels of the buildings. Of the 67.2 percent, 16 administrators, or 27.6 percent of the total sample, had a tendency to value and desire power. By comparison, 23 administrators, or 39.7 percent of the total sample, who had offices located on other levels of their buildings, were classified as the affiliation type.

It was hypothesized that there would be no significant difference between the power motivation types of administrators whose offices are located on the middle level of their buildings and the administrators whose offices are located on other levels of the buildings. With a chi square analysis of 0.0 and a level of significance at 1,0000, it was concluded that no significant difference existed. Therefore, the null hypothesis that there would be no significant difference failed to be rejected.

Reporting Analysis of Hypotheses Analyzed Using
t-test for Independent Data

Null Hypothesis 2

Null Hypothesis 2 is as follows: there will be no significant difference between the power style scores of male administrators and the power style scores of female administrators. The power style score determined in Part II of the Power Management Inventory and question 1 of the Personal Data Sheet were utilized for this analysis. The results of the analysis are listed in Table 13.

Table 13

Comparison Between the Power Style Scores of
Male and Female Administrators

N, Mean Score, t-score, Level of Significance			
Mean Score Administrators by Sex		t Value	Significance
Males (N=50)	Female (N=14)		
0.6108	0.5936	0.60	0.554

The difference was tested between the power style scores of male and female administrators. When 50 male and 14 female administrators were compared on the basis of their power style scores, the mean score for male administrators was 0.6108 compared to a mean score of 0.5936 for the female administrators. The t-score was 0.60 with a significance level of 0.554, which was not a significant difference. A t-score of 2.000 was necessary with an N of 64 to establish a significant difference at the .05 level.

It was hypothesized that there would be no significant difference between the power style scores of male and female administrators. With a t-score of 0.60 and a level of significance at 0.554, the null hypothesis that there would be no significant difference failed to be rejected.

Null Hypothesis 4

Null Hypothesis 4 is as follows: there will be no significant difference between the power style scores of taller administrators and the power style scores of shorter administrators. The power style scores determined in Part II of the Power Management Inventory and question 2 of the Personal Data Sheet were utilized for this analysis. The results of the analysis are listed in Table 14.

Table 14

Comparison Between Power Style Scores of Taller and Shorter Administrators

N, Mean Score, t-score, Level of Significance			
Mean Score Administrators by Height		t Value	Significance
5'5" or under (N=11)	5'6" or over (N=57)		
0.5955	0.6062	-0.34	0.733

The difference was tested between the power style scores of taller and shorter administrators. The data were collapsed into two response categories: (a) 5'5" and under; and (b) 5'6" and over, for purposes of statistical analysis with a t-test for independent data. Heights of

5'5" and under were considered below average height for both male and female administrators. Heights of 5'6" and over were considered above average height for both male and female administrators. When 11 shorter and 52 taller administrators were compared on the basis of their power style scores, the mean score for shorter administrators was 0.5955, compared to a mean score of 0.6062 for taller administrators. The t-score was -0.34 with a significance level of 0.733, which was not a significant difference. A t-score of 2.000 was necessary with an N of 63 to establish a significant difference at the .05 level.

It was hypothesized that there would be no significant difference between the power style scores of taller and shorter administrators. With a t-score of -0.34 and a level of significance at 0.733, the null hypothesis that there would be no significant difference failed to be rejected.

Null Hypothesis 6

Null Hypothesis 6 is as follows: there will be no significant difference between the power style scores of older administrators and the power style scores of younger administrators. The power style scores determined in Part II of the Power Management Inventory and question 3 of the Personal Data Sheet were utilized for this analysis. The results of the analysis are listed in Table 15, page 78.

The difference was tested between the power style scores of older and younger administrators. The data were collapsed into two response categories: (a) 50 years or younger; and (b) 51 years or older, for purposes of statistical analysis with a t-test for independent data.

When 45 younger and 19 older administrators were compared on the basis of their power style scores, the mean score for younger administrators was 0.5911, compared to a mean score of 0.6447 for older administrators. The t-score was -2.11 with a significance level of 0.038, which was a significant difference. A t-score of 2.000 was necessary with an N of 64 to establish a significant difference at the .05 level.

Table 15

Comparison Between the Power Style Scores of
Older and Younger Administrators

N, Mean Score, t-score, Level of Significance			
Mean Score Administrators by Age		t Value	Significance
50 years or younger (N=45)	51 years or older (N=79)		
0.5911	0.6447	-2.11	0.038

It was hypothesized that there would be no significant difference between the power style scores of older and younger administrators. With a t-score of -2.11 and a level of significance at 0.038, the null hypothesis that there would be no significant difference was rejected.

Null Hypothesis 8

Null Hypothesis 8 is as follows: there will be no significant difference in the power style scores of Vice Presidents/Associate or Assistant Vice Presidents, Deans and Departmental Chairpersons and the power style scores of Directors, Coordinators and other administrators.

The power style score determined in Part II of the Power Management Inventory and question 4 of the Personal Data Sheet were utilized for this analysis. The results of the analysis are listed in Table 16.

Table 16

Comparison Between the Power Style Scores of Vice Presidents/Associate or Assistant Vice Presidents, Deans and Departmental Chairpersons; and Directors, Coordinators and Others

N, Mean Score, t-score, Level of Significance			
Mean Score Administrators by Position		t Value	Significance
Vice Presidents/ Associate and Assistant Vice Presidents, Deans and Departmental Chairpersons (N=41)	Directors, Coordinators and Others (N=23)		
0.5946	0.6291	-1.40	0.166

The difference was tested between the power style scores of administrators in various administrative positions. The data were collapsed into two response categories: (a) Vice Presidents/Associate and Assistant Vice Presidents, Deans and Departmental Chairpersons; and (b) Directors, Coordinators and other administrators, for purposes of statistical analysis with a t-test for independent data. When 41 Vice Presidents/Associate and Assistant Vice Presidents, Deans and Departmental Chairpersons were compared with 19 Directors, Coordinators and other administrators on the basis of their power style scores, the mean score for the first group was 0.5946, compared with a mean score of 0.6291 for

the second group. The t-score was -1.40 with a significance level of 0.166, which was not a significant difference. A t-score of 2.000 was necessary with an N of 64 to establish a significant difference at the .05 level.

It was hypothesized that there would be no significant difference between the power style scores of administrators in various administrative positions. With a t-score of -1.40 and a level of significance at 0.166, the null hypothesis that there would be no significant difference failed to be rejected.

Null Hypothesis 10

Null Hypothesis 10 is as follows: there will be no significant difference between the power style scores of administrators selected by members of their Colleges/Schools/Departments or search committees and the power style scores of administrators selected by direct appointment by their superior. The power style score determined in Part II of the Power Management Inventory and question 5 of the Personal Data Sheet were utilized for this analysis. The results of the analysis are listed in Table 17, page 81.

The difference was tested between the power style scores of administrators selected for their positions by various groups and those administrators selected by direct appointment by a superior. The data were collapsed into two response categories: (a) Colleges/Schools/Departments or search committee; and (b) direct appointment by superior, for purposes of statistical analysis with a t-test for independent data. When 39 administrators classified as being selected for their positions by

members of their Colleges/Schools/Departments or search committee, were compared on the basis of their power style scores, with 25 administrators classified as being selected for their position by direct appointment by their superior, the mean score for the first group was 0.100, compared with a mean score of 0.079 for the second group. The t-score was -2.17 with a significance level of 0.034, which was a significant difference. A t-score of 2.000 was necessary with an N of 64 to establish a significant difference at the .05 level.

Table 17

Comparison Between the Power Style Scores of
Administrators Group Selected and Directly
Appointed to Current Positions

N, Mean Score, t-score, Level of Significance			
Mean Scores Method of Selection of Administrators		t Value	Significance
College/School Department Search Committee (N=39)	Direct Appointment by Superior (N=25)		
0.5869	0.6384	-2.17	0.034

It was hypothesized that there would be no significant difference between the power style scores of administrators selected by various groups and those administrators selected by direct appointment by a superior. With a t-score of -2.17 and a level of significance at 0.034, the null hypothesis that there would be no significant difference was rejected.

Null Hypothesis 12

Null Hypothesis 12 is as follows: there will be no significant difference between the power style scores of administrators whose positions were advertised outside their Colleges/Schools/Departments and the power style scores of administrators whose positions were not advertised outside their Colleges/Schools/Departments. The power style score determined in Part II of the Power Management Inventory and question 6 of the Personal Data Sheet were utilized for this analysis. The results of the analysis are listed in Table 18.

Table 18

Comparison Between the Power Style Scores of
Administrators Whose Positions Were
Advertised and Were Not Advertised
Outside College/School/
Department

N, Mean Score, t-score, Level of Significance			
Mean Score Administrative Position Advertisement		t Value	Significance
Advertised Outside College/ School/Department (N=34)	Not Advertised Outside College/ School/Department (N=28)		
0.6068	0.6071	-0.02	0.988

The difference was tested between the power style scores of administrators whose positions were advertised outside their Colleges/Schools/Departments and those administrators whose positions were not advertised outside their Colleges/Schools/Departments of the 62 administrators responding to this question, 34 responded that their positions

had been advertised outside their Colleges/Schools/Departments, compared to 28 administrators whose positions had not been advertised outside their Colleges/Schools/Departments. The mean score for the first group was 0.6068, compared with a mean score of 0.6071 for the second group. From the 62 responses, a comparison was made on the basis of the administrators' power style scores. The t-score was -0.02 with a significance level of 0.988, which was not a significant difference. A t-score of 2.000 was necessary with an N of 62 to establish a significant difference at the .05 level.

It was hypothesized that there would be no significant difference between the power style scores of administrators whose positions were advertised outside their Colleges/Schools/Departments and those administrators whose positions were not advertised outside their Colleges/Schools/Departments. With a t-score of -0.02 and a level of significance at 0.988, the null hypothesis that there would be no significant difference failed to be rejected.

Null Hypothesis 14

Null Hypothesis 14 is as follows: there will be no significant difference between the power style scores of administrators who have served in their current positions for a longer length of time and the power style scores of administrators who have served in their current positions for a shorter length of time. The power style score determined in Part II of the Power Management Inventory and question 7 of the Personal Data Sheet were utilized for this analysis. The results of the analysis are listed in Table 19, page 84.

Table 19

Comparison of Power Style Scores of Administrators
Serving Longer and Shorter Lengths of Time
in Current Positions

N, Mean Score, t-score, Level of Significance			
Mean Score Administrator's Length of Service in Position		t Value	Significance
5 years or less (N=46)	6 years or more (N=18)		
0.6220	0.5689	2.06	0.044

The difference was tested between the power style scores of administrators who have served longer and shorter lengths of time in their current positions. The data were collapsed into two response categories: (a) five years or less; and (b) six years or more, for purposes of statistical analysis with a t-test for independent data. When 46 administrators who had served in their current position for five years or less were compared on the basis of their power style scores with 18 administrators who had served in their current position for six years or more, the mean score for the first group was 0.6220, compared to a mean score of 0.5689 for the second group. The t-score was 2.06 with a significance level of 0.044, which was a significant difference. A t-score of 2.000 was necessary with an N of 64 to establish a significant difference at the .05 level.

It was hypothesized that there would be no significant difference between the power style scores of administrators who have served longer

and shorter lengths of time in their current positions. With a t-score of 2.06 and a level of significance at 0.044, the null hypothesis that there would be no significant difference was rejected.

Null Hypothesis 16

Null Hypothesis 16 is stated as follows: there will be no significant difference in the power style scores of administrators who have been employed for a longer length of time at the current institution and the power style scores of administrators who have been employed at the current institution for a shorter length of time. The power style score determined in Part II of the Power Management Inventory and question 8 of the Personal Data Sheet were utilized for this analysis. The results of the analysis are listed in Table 20.

Table 20

Comparison Between the Power Style Scores of
Administrators Employed Longer and
Shorter Lengths of Time at the
Current Institution

N, Mean Score, t-score, Level of Significance			
Mean Score Administrators Employment at Institution		t Value	Significance
10 years or less (N=40)	11 years or more (N=24)		
0.6165	0.5912	1.03	0.308

The difference was tested between the power style scores of administrators who have been employed longer and shorter lengths of time

at the current institution. The data were collapsed into two response categories: (a) ten years or less; and (b) eleven years or more, for purposes of statistical analysis with a t-test for independent data. When 40 administrators who were classified as having been employed in the current institution for ten years or less were compared on the basis of their power style scores with 24 administrators who were classified as having been employed in the current institution for eleven years or more, the mean score for the first group was 0.6165, compared to a mean score of 0.5912 for the second group. The t-score was 1.03 with a significance level of 0.308, which was not a significant difference. A t-score of 2.000 was necessary with an N of 64 to establish a significant difference at the .05 level.

It was hypothesized that there would be no significant difference between the power style scores of administrators who have been employed longer and shorter lengths of time at the current institution. With a t-score of 1.03 and a level of significance at 0.308, the null hypothesis that there would be no significant difference failed to be rejected.

Null Hypothesis 18

Null Hypothesis 18 is as follows: there will be no significant difference in the power style scores of administrators who select one color as their favorite and the power style scores of administrators who select other colors as their favorite. The power style score determined in Part II of the Power Management Inventory and question 9 of the Personal Data Sheet were utilized for this analysis. The results of the analysis are listed in Table 21, page 87.

Table 21

Comparison Between the Power Style Scores of
Administrators Selecting Blue and Selecting
Other Colors as Favorite Colors

N, Mean Score, t-score, Level of Significance			
Mean Score Administrator's Favorite Color		t Value	Significance
Other Colors (N=21)	Blue (N=43)		
0.6119	0.6047	0.28	0.777

The difference was tested between the power style scores of administrators who selected blue as their favorite color and administrators who selected other colors as their favorite. The data were collapsed into two response categories: (a) other colors; and (b) blue, for purposes of statistical analysis with a t-test for independent data. Of the 64 administrators sampled, 21 of the population selected colors other than blue as their favorite color, compared to 43 administrators who selected blue as their favorite color. From the 64 responses, a comparison was made on the basis of the administrator's power style scores. The mean score for administrators who selected colors other than blue as being their favorite color was 0.6119, as compared to a mean score of 0.6047 for the administrators who selected blue as their favorite color. The t-score was 0.28 with a significance level of 0.777, which was not a significant difference. A t-score of 2.000 was necessary with an N of 64 to establish a significant difference at the .05 level.

It was hypothesized that there would be no significant difference

between the power style scores of administrators who selected one color as their favorite color and those administrators who selected other colors as their favorite color. With a t-score of 0.28 and a level of significance at 0.777, the null hypothesis that there would be no significant difference failed to be rejected.

Null Hypothesis 20

Null Hypothesis 20 is stated as follows: there will be no significant difference between the power style scores of administrators who select one color as their least favorite and the power style scores of administrators who select other colors as their least favorite. The power style scores determined in Part II of the Power Management Inventory and question 10 of the Personal Data Sheet were utilized for this analysis. The results of the analysis are listed in Table 22.

Table 22

Comparison Between the Power Style Scores of
Administrators Selecting Blue and Selecting
Other Colors as Least Favorite Colors

N, Mean Score, t-score, Level of Significance			
Mean Score Administrator's Least Favorite Color		t Value	Significance
Other Colors (N=63)	Blue (N=1)		
0.6062	0.6600	-0.56	0.579

The difference was tested between the power style scores of administrators who selected colors other than blue as their least favorite color and those who selected blue as their least favorite color. The data were collapsed into two response categories: (a) other colors; and (b) blue, for purposes of statistical analysis with a t-test for independent data. Of the 64 administrators sampled, 63 of the population selected colors other than blue as their least favorite color, compared to one administrator who selected blue as his/her least favorite color. From the 64 responses, a comparison was made on the basis of the power style scores. The mean score for administrators who selected colors other than blue as being their least favorite color was 0.6062, as compared to a mean score of 0.6600 for the administrator who selected blue as his/her least favorite color. The t-score was -0.56 with a significance level of 0.579, which was not a significant difference. A t-score of 2.000 was necessary with an N of 64 to establish a significant difference at the .05 level.

It was hypothesized that there would be no significant difference between the power style scores of administrators who selected one color as their least favorite color and those administrators who selected other colors as their least favorite color. With a t-score of -0.56 and a level of significance at 0.579, the null hypothesis that there would be no significant difference failed to be rejected.

Null Hypothesis 22

Null Hypothesis 22 is as follows: there will be no significant difference in the power style scores of administrators who select one

position for their office furnishings and the power style scores of administrators who select other positions for their office furnishings. The power style score determined in Part II of the Power Management Inventory and question 11 of the Personal Data Sheet were utilized for this analysis. The results of the analysis are listed in Table 23.

Table 23

Comparison Between the Power Style Scores of
Administrators Placing Desk in front of
Window and in Other Locations

N, Mean Score, t-score, Level of Significance			
Mean Score Positioning of Office Furnishings		t Value	Significance
Desk in Front of Window (N=14)	Desk in Another Location (N=35)		
0.6086	0.6034	0.17	0.865

The difference was tested between the power style scores of administrators who chose to locate their office desk in front of their office window and those administrators who chose to place their desk at another location in their office. Fifteen administrators who had no window in their offices were not included in this analysis. The data were collapsed into two response categories: (a) desk in front of window; and (b) desk in another location, for purposes of statistical analysis with a t-test for independent data. Of the 49 administrators responding, 14 of the population sampled chose to locate their desk in front of their office window, compared to 35 administrators who chose

to place their desk at another location in their office. From the 49 responses, a comparison was made on the basis of the administrator's power style scores. The mean score for the administrators who located their desk in front of a window was 0.6086, as compared to a mean score of 0.6034 for those administrators who chose to locate their desk in another location. The t-score was 0.17 with a significance level of 0.865, which was not a significant difference. A t-score of 2.021 was necessary with an N of 49 to establish a significant difference at the .05 level.

It was hypothesized that there would be no significant difference between the power style scores of administrators who select one position for their office furnishings and those administrators who select other positions for their office furnishings. With a t-score of 0.17 and a level of significance at 0.865, the null hypothesis that there would be no significant difference failed to be rejected.

Null Hypothesis 24

Null Hypothesis 24 is as follows: there will be no significant difference in the power style scores of administrators whose offices are located on the middle level of their buildings and the power style scores of administrators whose offices are located on the other levels of the building. The power style score determined in Part II of the Power Management Inventory and questions 12 and 13 of the Personal Data Sheet were utilized for this analysis. The results of the analysis are located in Table 24, page 92.

Table 24

Comparison Between Power Style Scores of
Administrators with Offices on Middle
Levels and on Other Levels
of Buildings

N, Mean Score, t-score, Level of Significance			
Mean Score Office Location		t Value	Significance
Middle Level (N=19)	Other Level (N=39)		
0.6226	0.5930	1.08	0.285

The differences were tested between the power style scores of administrators whose offices are located on the middle level of their buildings and those administrators whose offices are located on the other levels of the buildings. The data were collapsed into two response categories: (a) office location on middle level of the building; and (b) office located on other levels, for purposes of statistical analysis with a t-test for independent data. Of the 56 administrators responding, 19, of the population sampled, had offices located on the middle level of their building, compared to 37 administrators whose offices were located on other levels of their buildings. From the 56 responses, a comparison was made on the basis of the administrator's power style scores. The mean score for the administrators whose offices were located on the middle level of the building was 0.6226, as compared to a mean score of 0.5930 for the administrators whose offices were located on other levels. The t-score was 1.08 with a significance level of 0.285,

which was not a significant difference. A t-score of 2.021 was necessary with an N of 56 to establish a significant difference at the .05 level.

It was hypothesized that there would be no significant difference between the power style scores of administrators whose offices are located on the middle level of their buildings and those administrators whose offices are located on the other levels of the buildings. With a t-score of 1.08 and a level of significance at 0.285, the null hypothesis that there would be no significant difference failed to be rejected.

CHAPTER FIVE

Summary, Conclusions and Recommendations

Summary

The problem of this study was to determine if a relationship exists between selected personal characteristics of higher education administrators and their perceived levels of power motivation and power style.

The Power Management Inventory developed by Jay Hall and James Hawker was selected as the instrument for use in this study. The Power Management Inventory was designed to provide a comparison between one's espoused theory (power motivation) and one's theory in action (power style).

The academic administrators at East Tennessee State University were chosen as being a representative group for evaluation. The research sample included one Vice President for Academic Affairs, one Associate Vice President for Academic Affairs, one Assistant to the Vice President for Academic Affairs, nine Deans, twelve Associate/Assistant Deans, twenty-one Directors, three Coordinators, and forty-eight Chairpersons. This research sample comprised an intact group of academic administrators at East Tennessee State University. A total of ninety-four administrators were surveyed representing ninety-six administrative positions. A total of sixty-four administrators returned the completed survey materials. The results of these data were used in a statistical analysis of the hypotheses of the study.

The non-parametric statistic chi square was used to determine where

significant differences existed for Hypotheses 1, 3, 5, 7, 9, 11, 13, 15, 17, 19, 21 and 23. A t-test for independent data was used to determine where significant differences existed for Hypotheses 2, 4, 6, 8, 10, 12, 14, 16, 18, 20, 22 and 24. The .05 level of significance was established for accepting or rejecting the hypotheses of this study.

Findings

From the results of the data analysis and interpretation, the following findings are presented. Findings are reported as they pertain to each of the hypotheses originally formulated.

Hypothesis 1 stated that there would be a significant difference between the power motivation types of male administrators and the power motivation types of female administrators. No significant difference existed between male and female administrators on the basis of their power motivation type.

Hypothesis 2 stated that there would be a significant difference between the power style scores of male administrators and the power style scores of female administrators. No significant difference existed between male and female administrators on the basis of their power style scores.

Hypothesis 3 stated that there would be a significant difference between the power motivation types of taller administrators and the power motivation types of shorter administrators. No significant difference existed between the taller and shorter administrators on the basis of their power motivation type.

Hypothesis 4 stated that there would be a significant difference

between the power style scores of taller administrators and the power style scores of shorter administrators. No significant difference existed between the taller and shorter administrators on the basis of their power style scores.

Hypothesis 5 stated that there would be a significant difference between the power motivation types of older administrators and the power motivation types of younger administrators. This hypothesis was supported by the significant difference found between older and younger administrators on the basis of their power motivation type.

Hypothesis 6 stated that there would be a significant difference between the power style scores of older administrators and the power style scores of younger administrators. This hypothesis was supported by the significant difference found between older and younger administrators on the basis of their power style scores.

Hypothesis 7 stated that there would be a significant difference between the power motivation types of Vice Presidents/Associate or Assistant Vice Presidents, Deans and Departmental Chairpersons and the power motivation types of Directors, Coordinators and other administrators. No significant difference existed between administrators in these two groups of administrative positions on the basis of their power motivation type.

Hypothesis 8 stated that there would be a significant difference between the power style scores of Vice Presidents/Associate or Assistant Vice Presidents, Deans and Departmental Chairpersons and the power style scores of Directors, Coordinators and other administrators. No significant difference existed between administrators in these two groups of administrative positions on the basis of their power style scores.

Hypothesis 9 stated that there would be a significant difference between the power motivation types of administrators selected by members of their Colleges/Schools/Departments or search committees and the power motivation types of administrators selected by direct appointment by their superiors. This hypothesis was supported by the significant difference found between those administrators selected for their positions by various groups and those administrators selected by direct appointment by a superior on the basis of their power motivation type.

Hypothesis 10 stated that there would be a significant difference between the power style scores of administrators selected by members of their Colleges/Schools/Departments or search committees and the power style scores of administrators selected by direct appointment by their superiors. This hypothesis was supported by the significant difference found between those administrators selected for their positions by various groups and those administrators selected by direct appointment by a superior on the basis of their power style scores.

Hypothesis 11 stated that there would be a significant difference between the power motivation types of administrators whose positions were advertised outside their Colleges/Schools/Departments and the power motivation types of administrators whose positions were not advertised outside their Colleges/Schools/Departments. No significant difference existed between administrators whose positions were advertised outside their Colleges/Schools/Departments and those administrators whose positions were not advertised outside their Colleges/Schools/Departments on the basis of their power motivation type.

Hypothesis 12 stated that there would be a significant difference between the power style scores of administrators whose positions were advertised outside their Colleges/Schools/Departments and the power style scores of administrators whose positions were not advertised outside their Colleges/Schools/Departments. No significant difference existed between administrators whose positions were advertised outside their Colleges/Schools/Departments and those administrators whose positions were not advertised outside their Colleges/Schools/Departments on the basis of their power style scores.

Hypothesis 13 stated that there would be a significant difference between the power motivation types of administrators who have served in their current positions for a longer length of time and the power motivation types of administrators who have served in their current positions for a shorter length of time. No significant difference existed between administrators who have served longer and shorter lengths of time in their current positions on the basis of their power motivation type.

Hypothesis 14 stated that there would be a significant difference between the power style scores of administrators who have served in their current position for a longer length of time and the power style scores of administrators who have served in their current position for a shorter length of time. This hypothesis was supported by the significant difference found between administrators who have served longer and shorter lengths of time in their current positions on the basis of their power style scores.

Hypothesis 15 stated that there would be a significant difference

between the power motivation types of administrators who have been employed for a longer length of time at the current institution and the power motivation types of administrators who have been employed at the current institution for a shorter length of time. No significant difference existed between administrators who have been employed longer and shorter lengths of time at the current institution on the basis of their power motivation type.

Hypothesis 16 stated that there would be a significant difference between the power style scores of administrators who have been employed for a longer length of time at the current institution and the power style scores of administrators who have been employed at the current institution for a shorter length of time. No significant difference existed between administrators who have been employed longer and shorter lengths of time at the current institution based on their power style scores.

Hypothesis 17 stated that there would be a significant difference between the power motivation types of administrators who select one color as their favorite and the power motivation types of administrators who select other colors as their favorite. No significant difference existed between administrators who selected one color as their favorite color and administrators who selected other colors as their favorite on the basis of their power motivation type.

Hypothesis 18 stated that there would be a significant difference between the power style scores of administrators who select one color as their favorite and the power style scores of administrators who select other colors as their favorite. No significant difference existed

between administrators who selected one color as their favorite color and administrators who selected other colors as their favorite on the basis of their power style scores.

Null Hypothesis 19 stated that there would be a significant difference in the power motivation types of administrators who select one color as their least favorite and the power motivation types of administrators who select other colors as their least favorite. No significant difference existed between administrators who selected one color as their least favorite color and administrators who selected other colors as their least favorite on the basis of their power motivation type.

Hypothesis 20 stated that there would be a significant difference between the power style scores of administrators who select one color as their least favorite and the power style scores of administrators who select other colors as their least favorite. No significant difference existed between administrators who selected one color as their least favorite color and those administrators who selected other colors as their least favorite color on the basis of their power style scores.

Hypothesis 21 stated that there would be a significant difference between the power motivation types of administrators who select one position for their office furnishings and the power motivation types of administrators who select other positions for their office furnishings. No significant difference existed between administrators who selected one position for their office furnishings and those administrators who selected other positions for their office furnishings on the basis of their power motivation type.

Hypothesis 22 stated that there would be a significant difference between the power style scores of administrators who select one position for their office furnishings and the power style scores of administrators who select other positions for their office furnishings. No significant difference existed between administrators who selected one position for their office furnishings and those administrators who selected other positions for their office furnishings on the basis of their power style scores.

Hypothesis 23 stated that there would be a significant difference between the power motivation types of administrators whose offices are located on the middle level of their buildings and the power motivation types of administrators whose offices are located on the other levels of the buildings. No significant difference existed between administrators whose offices were located on the middle level of their buildings and the administrators whose offices are located on other levels of their buildings based on their power motivation types.

Hypothesis 24 stated that there would be a significant difference between the power style scores of administrators whose offices are located on the middle level of their buildings and the power style scores of administrators whose offices are located on the other levels of the building. No significant difference existed between administrators whose offices were located on the middle level of their buildings and the administrators whose offices are located on other levels of their buildings based on their power style scores.

Conclusions

The conclusions which follow were drawn from the results of this research project. The sample was limited to an intact group of academic administrators at East Tennessee State University. Therefore, the conclusions are applicable to state universities that meet the same criteria as East Tennessee State University.

1. The power motivation of administrators can be directly related to the ages of the administrators.

2. The power style of administrators can be directly related to the ages of the administrators.

3. The power motivation of administrators can be directly related to the method by which they are selected to their positions.

4. The power style of administrators can be directly related to the method by which they were selected to their positions.

5. The power style of administrators can be directly related to the number of years of service in their positions.

6. The power motivation of administrators cannot be directly related to sex, height, position, method of position advertisement, length of service in position, length of service at the institution, favorite color, least favorite color, position of office furnishings or location of office.

7. The power style of administrators cannot be directly related to sex, height, position, method of position advertisement, length of service at the institution, favorite color, least favorite color, position of office furnishings or location of office.

Recommendations

As a result of this study, it is recommended that further research be conducted to identify other personal characteristics that may have an impact on the power motivation and power style of higher education administrators. Additional research is warranted since neither of these complex human dimensions has been explored in its totality.

A further recommendation is that, for future studies of this nature, data be collected using the following research proposals:

1. Within five years, a replication of this study should be conducted at East Tennessee State University to ascertain the reliability of the findings.
2. A replication of this study should be conducted at other institutions of higher education in order to increase the generalizability of the findings.
3. Different research methodology, such as the use of another evaluating instrument or the selection of other groups within the higher education setting, should be chosen in order to check the validity of the conclusions.

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APPENDICES

APPENDIX A

**LETTER FROM THE PRESIDENT OF EAST TENNESSEE STATE UNIVERSITY
GRANTING PERMISSION TO CONDUCT THE STUDY**

EAST TENNESSEE STATE UNIVERSITY
JACKSONVILLE, TENNESSEE 37602

March 1, 1984

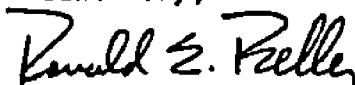
OFFICE OF THE PRESIDENT

To Whom It May Concern:

Nancy Lewis Garland, a doctoral candidate at East Tennessee State University, has been granted permission to conduct a study entitled "Power Motivation and Power Style in Higher Education Administration."

This study will seek to determine the relationship between selected personal characteristics of higher education administrators, and their perceived levels of power motivation and power style. The results of this study should help bring about greater understanding of academic administration at East Tennessee State University. Participation is strictly voluntary and the confidentiality of all responses is assured.

Sincerely,



Ronald E. Beller
President

REB/bk1

APPENDIX B

ACADEMIC LISTING

ACADEMIC LISTING

1983-84

ACADEMIC AFFAIRS

Vice President for Academic Affairs - Dr. Robert J. Alfonso
24,490A
Associate Vice President for Academic Affairs - Dr. David Tiffany
24,490A
Assistant to the Vice President for Academic Affairs - Wilsie
Bishop 24,290A
Administrative Coordinator, Office of Academic Program Development -
Dr. Benjamin E. Carmichael 24,290A
Director, Evening and Summer School Office - Dr. Gary Walters
24,430A

COLLEGE OF ARTS AND SCIENCES - Dr. Jewell Friend, Dean 24,400A
Dr. Cynthia Burnley, Assistant Dean 24,400A
Dr. Abbott A. Brayton, Assistant Dean 24,400A

ART - Mr. Jack Schrader, Chairman 23,740A
BIOLOGICAL SCIENCES - Dr. Fred Alsop, Chairman 23,590A
CHEMISTRY - Dr. Thomas Huang, Chairman 23,350A
COMMUNICATIONS - Dr. Murvin Perry, Chairman 22,510A
CRIMINAL JUSTICE - Dr. Michael Braswell, Chairman 19,150A
ENGLISH - Dr. Donald Johnson, Chairman 22,990A
GEOGRAPHY AND GEOLOGY - Dr. Donald Poole, Chairman 22,870A
HISTORY - Dr. Earl Wade, Chairman 22,660A
LANGUAGES - Dr. Eduardo Zayas-Bazan, Chairman 22,480A
MATHEMATICS - Dr. William Anderson, Chairman 22,390A
MUSIC - Dr. Richard Compton, Chairman 22,330A
PHILOSOPHY AND HUMANITIES - Dr. Jeff Gold, Chairman 22,180A
PHYSICS - Dr. James R. Miller, Acting Chairman 22,060A
POLITICAL SCIENCE - Dr. Glen Broach, Chairman 22,030A
PSYCHOLOGY - Dr. Otto Zinser, Chairman 21,970A
SOCIAL WORK - Mr. Robert Lewis, Chairman 21,850A
SOCIOLOGY - Dr. Robert Leger, Chairman 21,820A

COLLEGE OF BUSINESS - Dr. Allan Spritzer, Dean 23,470A
Dr. Herman Stribling, Director, Undergraduate
Studies 23,470A
Dr. William Galle, Director, Graduate Studies
23,470A
Dr. Steb Hipple, Director, Bureau Business and
Economic Research 23,500A
Dr. Richard Puckett, Chair of Banking 21,070A
Dr. Don Wilkinson, Director, Small Business
Institute 23,410A

ACCOUNTANCY - Dr. Thomas McKee, Acting Chairman 23,800A
 ECONOMICS AND FINANCE - Dr. Michael Brown, Acting Chairman 23,080A
 MANAGEMENT AND MARKETING - Dr. Ronald Zigli, Chairman 21,250A
 OFFICE MANAGEMENT - Dr. Donald Wilkinson, Chairman 23,410A

COLLEGE OF EDUCATION - Dr. Charles Edwards, Dean 23,050A
 Dr. Floyd Edwards, Associate Dean 23,050A

CURRICULUM & INSTRUCTION - Dr. William Pafford, Chairman 23,020A
 HUMAN DEVELOPMENT & LEARNING - Dr. Norman Hankins, Chairman 18,940A
 PHYSICAL EDUCATION & RECREATION - Dr. Judith Johnston, Chairman
 22,120A
 SUPERVISION & ADMINISTRATION - Dr. Charles Burkett, Chairman
 19,000A
 UNIVERSITY SCHOOL - Mr. Sam Humphreys, Director 21,460A
 CHILD STUDY CENTER - Ms. Susanna Mobley, Director 18,940A

COLLEGE OF MEDICINE - Dr. Herschel Douglas, Dean 23,320A
 Mr. Elmo Cavin, Jr., Associate Dean, Finance &
 Administration 15,100A
 Dr. Charles Votaw, Associate Dean, Academic &
 Student Affairs 19,630A
 Dr. Floyd Goffin, Assistant Dean, Continuing
 Medical Education 19,660A
 Dr. Raymond Massengill, Jr., Assistant Dean,
 Medical Education, Bristol 21,130A
 Dr. Ronald McGowan, Assistant Dean, Medical
 Education, Johnson City 15,010A
 Dr. Leslie B. Reynolds, Assistant Dean, Medical
 Education, Kingsport 21,130A
 Dr. Leo M. Harvill, Assistant Dean, Section of
 Medical Education 19,720A
 Ms. Janet Fisher, Assistant Dean, Learning
 Resources 23,290A
 Mr. H. Erwin Tipton, Assistant Dean for Clinical
 Administration 15,100A
 Dr. Richard Skalko, Director, Biomedical Science -
 Graduate Program 19,960A

ANATOMY - Dr. Richard Skalko, Chairman 19,960A
 BIOCHEMISTRY - Dr. Frank Inman, Chairman 19,930A
 BIOPHYSICS - Dr. Ronald Cowden, Chairman 15,130A
 FAMILY PRACTICE - Dr. David Doane, Chairman 21,130A
 INTERNAL MEDICINE - Dr. J. Kelly Smith, Chairman 21,160A
 LABORATORY ANIMAL RESEARCH - Dr. Brunhilde Tober-Meyer, Director
 15,040A
 MICROBIOLOGY - Dr. Dwight Lambe, Chairman 19,870A
 OBSTETRICS/GYNECOLOGY - Dr. Dillard Sholes, Chairman 19,570A

PATHOLOGY - Dr. Phillip S. Coogan, Chairman 19,540A
 PEDIATRICS - Dr. Frank Shepard, Chairman 19,840A
 PHARMACOLOGY - Dr. Ernest Daigneault, Chairman 19,810A
 PHYSIOLOGY - Dr. Robert Rasch, Chairman 19,780A
 PSYCHIATRY - Dr. James M. Turnbull, Chairman 19,510A
 SURGERY - Dr. Lester Bryant, Chairman 19,750A

SCHOOL OF APPLIED SCIENCE AND TECHNOLOGY - Dr. W. Rollin Williams, Dean
 19,090A

COMPUTER AND INFORMATION SCIENCES - Dr. Donald Bailes, Chairman
 23,830A
 HOME ECONOMICS - Dr. Amelia Brown, Acting Chairman 22,630A
 INDUSTRIAL EDUCATION - Dr. Charles Story, Chairman 22,600A
 TECHNOLOGY - Dr. John Ephraim, Chairman 19,060A
 MILITARY SCIENCE - LTC. John Gross 21,940A
 DIVISION OF VOCATIONAL EDUCATION - Dr. Glenn Bettis, Coordinator
 22,600A

SCHOOL OF NURSING - Dr. Edith Summerlin, Dean 21,010A

ASSOCIATE DEGREE NURSING - Ms. Linda Norman, Acting Chairman 22,780A
 BACCALAUREATE DEGREE NURSING - Dr. Rosemary McLain, Chairman 22,240A

SCHOOL OF PUBLIC AND ALLIED HEALTH - Dr. James Vaught, Dean 21,190A

COMMUNICATIVE DISORDERS - Dr. Susan Mattingly, Chairman 21,790A
 DENTAL HYGIENE - Dr. Jack Brooks, Chairman 23,200A
 ENVIRONMENTAL HEALTH - Dr. M. T. Morgan, Chairman 22,960A
 HEALTH EDUCATION - Dr. Robert Patton, Chairman 22,720A
 PARAMEDICAL CENTER - Mr. John Neece, Director 19,690A

SCHOOL OF GRADUATE STUDIES - Dr. Elizabeth McMahan, Dean 24,100A

ADMISSIONS AND RECORDS - Dr. James Loyd, Dean 24,430A

OFFICE OF ACADEMIC PROGRAM DEVELOPMENT

KINGSPORT CENTER - Dr. Michael Vavrek, Director 24,310A
 BRISTOL CENTER - Ms. Patti Hagerty, Director 24,310A
 CONTINUING EDUCATION - Dr. Howard Ledbetter, Director 22,270A

CAREER DEVELOPMENT - Mr. Dan Emmel, Director 24,040A

LIBRARIES - Dr. Fred Borchuck, Director 22,450A

MUSEUM - Ms. Helen Roseberry, Coordinator 22,300A

INSTITUTE FOR APPALACHIAN AFFAIRS - Dr. Richard J. Blaustein, Director
19,180A

INSTITUTIONAL RESEARCH - Dr. Roy Ikenberry, Associate Director 23,980A
Ms. Ginger Hawk, Assistant Director 23,980A

SPECIAL SERVICES - Mr. James Lefler, Director 23,920A

APPENDIX C

LETTER TO TELEOMETRICS INTERNATIONAL



East Tennessee State University

University Planning and Capital Budgets • Box 24370A • Johnson City, Tennessee 37614-0902 • (615) 929-5351, 4716, 4383

March 1, 1984

Teleometrics International
1755 Woodstead Court
The Woodlands, Texas 77380

RE: Purchase of 110 Copies of the Power Management Inventory for
Use in Educational Research

Several weeks ago, I spoke with a representative of Teleometrics International by telephone. We discussed the possibility of my using the "Power Management Inventory" in my doctoral dissertation research. My prospectus has now been approved by my Advanced Graduate Committee and I am ready to proceed with my study.

I have enclosed a copy of my prospectus for your review and consideration. I wish to purchase 110 copies of the instrument for use in my study. If my prospectus meets with your approval, I would appreciate your allowing me to purchase the instruments at cost (50¢ each) plus postage, per our telephone conversation.

I will be pleased to forward any additional information concerning my study. If approved, please forward the instruments to the following address:

Nancy Lewis Garland
Office of University Planning &
Capital Budgeting
Box 24,370A
East Tennessee State University
Johnson City, Tennessee 37614

Phone: Home 615-743-5788
Office 615-929-5351

As time is of the essence, I would appreciate your forwarding the requested instruments by over-night delivery, either C.O.D. or bill me at the above address.

I also request your written permission to use the "Power Management Inventory" in my research, and your permission to include a copy of the instrument in the final copy of my dissertation.

I appreciate your assistance and cooperation.

Sincerely,

Nancy Lewis Garland

Nancy Lewis Garland

Enclosures

APPENDIX D

LETTER FROM TELEOMETRICS INTERNATIONAL GRANTING
PERMISSION TO USE THE POWER
MANAGEMENT INVENTORY

TELECOMMUNICATIONS

OUR PRODUCT IS ACHIEVEMENT

March 13, 1984

Ms. Nancy Lewis Garland
Office of University Planning & Capital Budgets
Box 24, 370A
East Tennessee State University
Johnson City, Tennessee 37614-0002

Dear Ms. Garland,

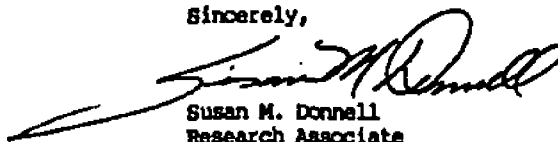
Thank you for your letter of March 1, including a copy of your dissertation proposal and requesting to purchase 110 copies of our Power Management Inventory at the special research price of \$.50 per copy.

We are pleased to grant your request and have shipped the materials today under separate cover via Express Mail. You may take this letter as written permission to use the instrument in your research, provided you agree to supply us with a copy of your completed dissertation.

You also requested permission to include a copy of the PMI in the final copy of your dissertation. Because it is copyrighted and cannot be reproduced in any way, we ask that you include only a copy of the front cover (both sides so the copyright notice shows) and a sample question from each section. This method has, in the past, proven satisfactory both to graduate schools and to University Microfilms.

We wish you all the best in your research and look forward to seeing the final study.

Sincerely,



Susan M. Donnell
Research Associate

SD RECEIVED

MAR 19 1984

UNIVERSITY MICROFILMS

1755 WOODSTEAD COURT • THE WOODLANDS, TEXAS • 77380 • (713) 367 0060

CABLE TELEINTL TWX #910 880 4646

APPENDIX E

SAMPLE QUESTIONS FROM THE POWER MANAGEMENT INVENTORY



POWER MANAGEMENT INVENTORY

by
Jay Hall, Ph.D.
James Hawker, Ph.D.

ANOTHER LEARNING INSTRUMENT from

TELEOMETRICS INT'L.

1755 Woodstead Court
The Woodlands, Texas 77380
(713) 367-0060

A WORD ABOUT THE POWER MANAGEMENT INVENTORY

Power — the exertion of influence — is a fact of organizational life. Whenever two or more people convene, the dynamics of interpersonal influence may be expected to emerge rather early in the encounter. The process of management is, in many respects, an exercise in the use of formalized authority and influence. Management in its day-to-day trappings concerns many diverse situations in which the exercise of influence is called for. Solving problems, setting objectives, appraising performance, providing direction — all are managerial tasks and all involve the exercise of power. It is important — for both the manager and those he or she manages — to understand as well as possible the dynamics of interpersonal influence and the role one plays in setting these in motion.

The *Power Management Inventory* is designed to assess a manager's characteristic management of influence dynamics; that is, how a given manager prefers to handle situations calling for the exercise of power and authority. More to the point, the inventory is designed to give you some information about yourself regarding the methods and reasons which most characterize your handling of power situations. There are no "wrong" responses. The best response to any item is simply the one which best reflects your practices, your feelings, and your preferences in the several work situations described.

INSTRUCTIONS

The inventory is presented in two parts. Part One addresses a wide range of specific issues of concern to a manager. Your preferred or, perhaps, typical way of handling each of these will be surveyed according to the format explained below. Part Two addresses the decision structure which most characterizes your transactions with others. Part Two will be explained at the time it appears in the inventory. Please read the format for Part One and proceed accordingly.

Part One Format

Three response modes — A, B and C — are assessed in the inventory, two at a time. For each inventory item you are requested to indicate which of two alternative reactions would be most characteristic of you. Some alternatives may be equally characteristic of you or equally uncharacteristic. While this is a distinct possibility, nevertheless choose the alternative which is relatively more characteristic of you. For each item, you will have two points that you may distribute between each pair of alternatives. For example, A and B types could be rated in any of the following combinations:

- (1) If A is completely characteristic of your feelings and B is completely uncharacteristic, write a "5" on your test sheet under A and a "0" under B, thus:

A	B
5	0

- (2) If A is considerably characteristic of your feelings and B is somewhat characteristic, write a "4" on your test sheet under A and a "1" under B, thus:

A	B
4	1

- (3) If A is only slightly more characteristic of your feelings than B is, write a "3" on your test sheet under A and a "2" under B, thus:

A	B
3	2

- (4) Each of the above three combinations may be used in the converse order; that is, for example, should you feel B is slightly more characteristic of your feelings than A, write a "2" on your test sheet under A and a "3" under B, thus:

A	B
2	3

and so on for A=1, B=4, or A=0, B=5

Thus, there are six possible combinations for responding to the pair of alternatives presented to you with each inventory item. **USE ONLY WHOLE NUMBERS. BE SURE THE NUMBERS YOU ASSIGN TO EACH PAIR SUM TO EQUAL 5.** In general, try to relate each situation in the inventory to your own personal feelings. Take as much time as you need to make a true and accurate response. There is no time limit. Remember, **THERE IS NO RIGHT OR WRONG ANSWER.** Attempts to give a "correct" response merely distort the meaning of your answers and render the test results valueless as a tool for personal learning.

Copyright © 1981 Jay Mac and James Messer
Published by Test-Mentals.com

This inventory is copyrighted. The reproduction of any part of it by mimeograph, photostat, or by any other means, whether the reproductions are sold or furnished free, is a violation of the copyright law.

Power Management Inventory

Sample Questions

Part One

Following are several situations commonly encountered or considered by people such as yourself in managerial positions. Please read each carefully along with the two alternatives presented as possible ways of responding. Indicate your choices among alternatives in the spaces provided according to the format explained in the instructions. Take as much time as you need for a thoughtful and honest response.

1. In setting goals and identifying objectives, my major concern is:

C. That the individual needs and capabilities of my people
are well met and utilized.

OR

A. That the goals and objectives we aspire to are high
enough to stretch and challenge all of us.

C A

--	--

Part Two

In this part of the Inventory we are interested in determining the decision structure which most characterizes your transactions with those you manage. Ten (10) decision-making issues are presented below along with an 11-point scale ranging from "I decide completely" to "they decide completely." For each situation, you are simply asked to place an "X" at the point on the scale which best reflects the influence structure typically characterizing discussion of such issues. Again, there are no "right" or "wrong" answers; the best answer is the one which most accurately portrays your practices and/or preferences.

1. In making work assignments for those I manage, typically:

I
decide
completely

We
decide
jointly

They
decide
completely

:____:____:____:____:____:____:____:____:____:____:

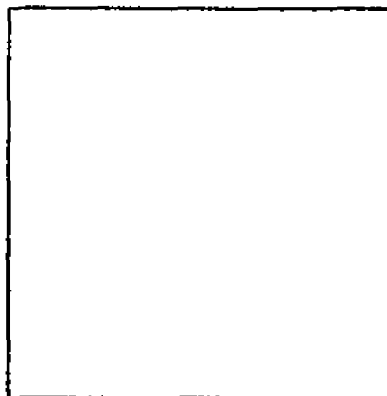
APPENDIX F

PERSONAL DATA SHEET

Personal Data Sheet

1. Check one: Male _____
Female _____
2. Height: 5' or under _____
5'1" to 5'5" _____
5'6" to 6'0" _____
6'1" to 6'5" _____
3. Age: 30 or under _____ 51 to 55 _____
31 to 40 _____ 56 to 60 _____
41 to 45 _____ 60+ _____
46 to 50 _____
4. Indicate your current position:
Vice President/Associate or Assistant Vice President _____
Dean _____
Departmental Chairperson _____
Director _____
Coordinator _____
Other--Please specify _____
5. How were you selected for your current position?
(a) by members of your College/School/Department _____
(b) by search committee comprised entirely of members
of your Department/School/College _____
(c) by search committee comprised of members of your
College/School/Department and persons outside
this group _____
(d) by direct appointment by superior _____
(e) Other--Please specify _____

6. Was your position advertised outside your College/School/Department? Yes _____
No _____
7. How many years have you served in your current position?
1 year or less _____
2 to 5 years _____
6 to 10 years _____
11 to 15 years _____
over 15 years _____
8. How many years have you been employed at this university?
1 year or less _____ 16 to 20 years _____
2 to 5 years _____ 21 to 25 years _____
6 to 10 years _____ over 25 years _____
11 to 15 years _____
9. Please indicate your FAVORITE COLOR (select one) of the colors listed.
green _____ brown _____ red _____ blue _____
10. Please indicate your LEAST FAVORITE COLOR (select one) of the colors listed.
green _____ brown _____ red _____ blue _____
11. In the box, please indicate the arrangement of the windows, your desk and your desk chair.



12. How many levels (floors) are in the building that houses your personal office?

B _____ 3 _____

1 _____ 4 _____

2 _____ 5 _____

13. On what level (floor) is your personal office location?

B _____ 3 _____

1 _____ 4 _____

2 _____ 5 _____

APPENDIX C

COVER LETTER



East Tennessee State University

Department of Supervision and Administration • Box 19000A • Johnson City, Tennessee 37614-0002 • (615) 929-4415, 4430

Dear

The enclosed questionnaire and personal data sheet are designed to take only a few minutes to complete. Please complete each of them, along with a signed "Informed Consent Form." Return the questionnaire and personal data sheet in one envelope, and the "Informed Consent Form" in the other envelope, at your earliest convenience. Two self-addressed envelopes are enclosed to facilitate your response.

I am a doctoral student in Educational Administration at East Tennessee State University. I am engaged in a study entitled "Power Motivation and Power Styles in Higher Education Administration." More specifically, the problem of this study is to determine if relationships exist between selected personal characteristics of higher education administrators, and their perceived level of power motivation and their power style.

Enclosed are the Power Management Inventory and a personal data sheet. They are the instruments being used to collect data which will be utilized in a doctoral dissertation.

Your participation in this study will be most appreciated. Your anonymity is guaranteed because "Informed Consent Forms" and the survey instruments will be mailed under separate cover.

Copies of these data, when compiled and analyzed, will be furnished upon request. I thank you, in advance, for your cooperation.

Sincerely,

Nancy Lewis Garland
Doctoral Candidate

Enclosures

APPENDIX H

FOLLOW-UP LETTER



East Tennessee State University

Department of Supervision and Administration • Box 190004 • Johnson City, Tennessee 37614-0002 • (615) 929-4415, 4430

April 4, 1984

Approximately two weeks ago, you received a survey instrument entitled Power Management Inventory, an Informed Consent Form, and a personal data sheet, along with a cover letter and return envelopes. The instruments are being used to collect data which will be utilized in my doctoral dissertation entitled POWER MOTIVATION AND POWER STYLE IN HIGHER EDUCATION ADMINISTRATION.

To date, I have not received your Informed Consent Form. Therefore, I assume you have not returned the survey materials. It is possible that my initial correspondence did not reach you. I will be pleased to supply the needed materials upon request. You may contact me at either of these ETSU numbers: 5351/4383/4216.

I would appreciate your taking the time to complete each of these materials. Please return the questionnaire and personal data sheet in one envelope, and the Informed Consent Form in the other envelope, at your earliest convenience. Two self addressed envelopes were enclosed to facilitate your response.

Your participation in this study will be most appreciated. Your anonymity is guaranteed because the Informed Consent Forms and the survey instruments will be mailed under separate cover.

Copies of these data, when compiled and analyzed, will be furnished upon request. I appreciate your help in this project.

Sincerely,

Nancy Lewis Garland
Doctoral Candidate

APPENDIX I

INFORMED CONSENT FORM

East Tennessee State University
Institutional Review Board

Informed Consent Form

PRINCIPAL INVESTIGATOR: Nancy Lewis Garland

TITLE OF PROJECT: POWER MOTIVATION AND POWER STYLE IN
HIGHER EDUCATION ADMINISTRATION

- 1) Indicated below are the (a) purpose of this study, (b) the procedures to be followed and (c) the approximate duration of this study:

The purpose of this study is to determine if relationships exist between selected personal characteristics of higher education administrators, and their perceived level of power motivation and their power style. Subjects will be requested to complete a survey instrument and a demographic data sheet. The instruments will require approximately 30 minutes to complete. The anonymity of the subject will be protected.

- 2) Discomforts, inconveniences and/or risks that can be reasonably expected are:

NONE

- 3) I understand the procedures to be used in this study and the possible risks involved. All my questions have been answered. I also understand that while my rights and privacy will be maintained, the Secretary of the Department of Health, Education and Welfare does have free access to any information obtained in this study should it become necessary and I freely and voluntarily choose to participate. I understand that I may withdraw at any time without prejudice to me. I also understand that while East Tennessee State University does not provide compensation for medical treatment other than emergency first aid, for any physical injury which may occur as a result of my participation as a subject in this study, claims arising against ETSU or any of its agents or employees may be submitted to the Tennessee State Board of Claims for disposition to the extent allowable as provided under TCA Section 9-812. Further information concerning this may be obtained from the chairman of the Institutional Review Board.

Date

Signature of Volunteer

Date

Signature of Parents or Guardian
(when applicable)

March 15, 1984
Date

Nancy Lewis Garland
Signature of Investigator
Nancy Lewis Garland

Date

Signature of Witness (if applicable)

NANCY LEWIS GARLAND

Honors and Awards:

- Dean's Award for Scholastic Achievement, East Tennessee State University, 1976 and 1977.
- Graduated Summa Cum Laude, East Tennessee State University, B.S., 1977.
- President, Advanced Graduate Seminar, East Tennessee State University, 1982.
- Selected as Outstanding Doctoral Student in Educational Administration, by The National Institute of Education and American Educational Research Association, 1984.
- Delta Kappa Gamma.